The Nation.

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The Week.

A Commander-in-Chief who has to send orders to his subordinates 11,000 miles away is bound to fall into awkward situations; and President Roosevelt is more to be pitied than blamed for the miscarriage of his wisely conceived purpose to prevent the punitive expedition against the Moros of Mindanao. His telegraphic correspondence with Gen. Chaffee amounts to this:

Gen. Chaffee: "I propose to send a column of 1,200 men to Lake Lanao."

President Roosevelt: "That would be a mistake. Don't let the men leave the coast."

Gen. Chaffee: "But the men have already started.

President Roosevelt: "Very well, let them go."

As we say, that has a most embarrassing look for the Commander-in-Chief, but we see no help for it. He is bound to take the word of his division commander when the latter is on the spot, and the spot is half-way round the globe. That is the military moral. The political moral is simply the old Philippine puzzle—what on earth are we doing in that Moro galley, anyhow?

The mere fact that President Roosevelt countermanded the punitive expedition shows that we have learned something in our three bitter years of schooling in the Philippines. We are not so terribly anxious now to uphold our prestige in the archipelago, if it means a needless and bloody war. If such orders had been issued to Otis as were sent to Chaffee—though so unfortunately late—there would have been no war in Luzon. That there may be now a general war in Mindanao is only too likely. If there is, it will be the result of a perfectly insensate proceeding on Gen. Chaffee's part. As a mere piece of skilful management, the settlement with the Moros by the tactful diplomacy of Gen. Bates was by far the most creditable thing we have done in the Philippines. The policy pursued was to let the chiefs alone, provided only that they would acknowledge our flag. They are polygamists, but we kept a blind eye for that. They have slaves, but we looked the other way. We paid them a subsidy to keep still and not bother us, and thought ourselves, as we were, lucky to get off so easily. Now comes Gen. Chaffee with the rough soldier's idea of showing the heathen who is boss, and threatens to bring on a general war with the wildest and most formidable inhabitants of the archipelago. The reason assigned is that two native murderers have not been produced, and that the dattos would not keep their appointments with the American General. We can wink at polygamy, can stomach slavery, and can pay over our tribute like any Spaniard of them all; but if it comes to treating us with personal disrespect, why, blood must flow.

"Hell-Roaring Jake," so Mr. Stephen Bonsal informs us, is the name by which Gen. Smith is known among his army intimates. If his private conversation is more gruesome than the military orders which, it is now undisputed, he gave in Samar, he fully deserves the sobriquet. Indiscriminate slaughter of non-combatants and the laying of the whole island waste—that is what the counsel of an American general admits to a court-martial that he ordered. He may yet offer the defence, as Major Waller did, that he was only executing bloody instructions which came to him from his superior officers. If, however, Gen. Smith can be shown to have been guilty without orders of these frightful violations of the laws of war, these clear infractions of the "Instructions for the Government of Armies of the United States in the Field" (known as General Orders, No. 100), these unspeakably fiendish barbarities, then we say that he ought to be shot. Military law would justify such a punishment for such crimes; and unless our national conscience is seared with a hot iron, it will cry aloud for the sternest justice upon an officer who has outdone Spanish savagery. Suppose that, four years ago, on the eve of the Spanish war, a dispatch from Havana had even hinted at practices by a Spanish general so atrocious as those now coolly admitted by an American general—why, we should have rent the skies with our indignation. Yet the moral law has not changed in the meantime, and God still requires innocent blood at the hands of murderers, be they men or nations.

The letter of instruction sent by Gen. Chaffee to "Hell-Roaring Jake" when the latter was put in command of the brigade operating in Samar will be relied upon as a part of the defence in the court-martial of the latter. One paragraph especially is quoted as a justification of the orders given by Smith to Waller. Chaffee said:

"I have all the time thought that we do not appreciate the fact that we are dealing with a people whose character is deceitful, who are absolutely hostile to the white race, and who regard life as of little value, and, finally, who will not submit to our control until absolutely defeated and whipped into such a condition. It is to our interest to disarm these people, and to keep them disarmed, and any means to that end is advisable."

This is an instruction from a superior to a subordinate officer, not merely to deal severely with enemies in arms, but to exterminate a people because they are "deceitful"—that is, they will not disclose to invaders the places where they keep their arms. In order to get their arms away from them, Gen. Chaffee says any means is not only admissible, but advisable. Of course "killing everything over ten" is one such means, and Gen. Smith will be prepared to show that it is the very best means to the end. Gen. Chaffee may himself be brought before a court-martial for giving such bloody instructions. If so, he may point to the fact that the contents of his letter to Smith was known to the War Department, and was at least tacitly approved. One of the dreadful sayings of "Hell-Roaring Jake," which was known at the War Department for more than a year, and was never questioned, was that "neutrality must not be tolerated on the part of any native. The time has now arrived when all natives in this brigade who are not openly for us must be regarded as against us." This means, Suspect everybody, and kill everybody whom you suspect.

President Roosevelt's military right to order Gen. Funston to die with all his Philippine music in him is doubtless beyond dispute, unless it could be held that silence, in the case of a man like Funston, is one of those cruel and unusual punishments forbidden by the Constitution. The Kansan Brigadier had been having such a good time losing his temper and loosing his tongue about the Philippines. But he ought to take the President's rebuke as a really necessary step in his somewhat neglected military education. Taciturnity is a characteristic trait of great soldiers. Moltke was silent in seven languages, and Funston can begin by being speechless in one. So we hope he will wear his gag gracefully. We do not see that his military glory, such as it is, will be dimmed by his reprimand. The Duke of Wellington was once twitted in Parliament with "never yet having entered into a contest with Englishmen in which he was not beaten." Funston's case is similar. He simply did not know how the moral sense of the country and of the President would be shocked by his insolent attack upon Senator Hoar as a man with "a superheated conscience." Now he knows.

"So far from being in any way a provocation to war, an adequate and highly trained navy is the best guarantee against war, the cheapest and most

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effective peace insurance. The cost of building and maintaining such a navy represents the very lightest premium for insuring peace which the nation can possibly pay." Thus spoke President Roosevelt, in his message of last December, and Monday the naval committee of the House brought in their little "peace-insurance" bill of $77,659,000. The additions to the navy proposed are two first-class battle-ships, two first-class armored cruisers, and two gunboats. These are to be added to the 138 vessels already built or building, at a cost of $235,000,000. Such are the burdens of an armed peace, which, as the Pope recently declared in his encyclical, are rapidly becoming as grievous as those of war itself.

The rowdyism of certain officers of the United States navy and marine corps in a public place in the city of Venice has drawn upon themselves the attention of the police, and upon the United States that of other nations. Is it possible that this outbreak is one of the signs of our newly acquired dignity and standing as a World Power? However that may be, it is gratifying to know that we have a gentleman at the head of the Navy Department. Secretary Long says that, if these men have committed an infraction of the law in Venice, they must suffer the consequences of their acts. They have been sentenced to prison for no very long period, but sufficiently to put a stigma upon them, and after they have "served time" they will be liable to court-martial at home. The penalty visited upon them by the Venetian tribunal is mild by comparison with the summary method of punishing Italians for infractions of local law in Louisiana. Our civilized and enlightened method is to promptly lynch the offenders and any others found in the neighborhood. Then, when the Italian Government demands satisfaction, we assure the Ambassador of the aggrieved nation that we treat his countrymen as well as we do our own. How could he ask more?

We gravely apprehend that President Roosevelt is defeated in his Cuban policy, and that Congress will pass no bill in aid of Cuba before the date for setting up the native government, May 20. This seems to us the unmistakable inference from the situation at Washington. The Senate was pictured for months as feverishly eager to enact an adequate measure of Cuban relief. It could hardly wait for the House to pass even a mangled bill. Well, such a bill passed the House a fortnight ago, and the Senate Committee has only provided for further and indefinite delays. Senator Teller's resolution to investigate the holdings of Cuban sugar by the Sugar Trust was distinctly understood by Administration organs to be offered as an obstructionist and dilatory move, yet it has been adopted by the Committee, and the faint "hope" is now expressed by Senator Platt that he may be ready to report a bill in three weeks, or so. This is a square defeat for the Administration, and we fear that it will produce alarm and dejection in Cuba, with consequences that will be bad, both politically and financially. The worst of it is that the President has so procrastinated, through being imposed upon by the assurances of leading Republicans in Congress, that he cannot now make a public appeal for generous treatment of Cuba with any effect. Protection and prejudice have been too subtle and too strong for him; and in spite of the noble words of his message about what we were bound in "honor" to do for Cuba, we are going to do just nothing at all for the fledgling republic.

Attorney-General Knox is rapidly becoming a mighty hunter before the Lord, his principal game being Trusts. Of course, he is doing but his simple duty under the law in ordering proceedings against the Beef Trust, since the statute expressly directs him to proceed as he has done; but his activity is all the more noteworthy because it was unexpected. Mr. Knox had been set down —very unjustly, it is now evident—as the special friend and representative in the Cabinet of unscrupulous corporations. His confirmation in office, it will not be forgotten, was stoutly opposed on the ground that he had been an attorney for the Steel Trust and other large concerns. This weighs little now, except as it perhaps yields one reason for his unusual skill in drawing complaints against illegal combinations. Granting that a lawyer has employed his talents in advising corporations how close to the Anti-Trust Law they may sail, he would be just the man, if so minded, to detect and punish those which had imprudently gone over the line. Certainly Mr. Knox's success in at least frightening the corporations, and spiking the guns of the Democrats, illustrates the power of specially trained wits in meeting specially trained wits.

Dear food in America, caused whether by Trusts or taxes, comes by a strange coincidence at the same time that the new tax on bread in Great Britain is causing an outcry. The Chancellor of the Exchequer has already been proved a false prophet as to the effect of his duty on wheat and flour. Despite his predictions to the contrary, the millers and bakers have promptly raised their prices. They may have done so unnecessarily, and the grumbling which is certain to come may be uncalled for, but important political results will follow, nevertheless. That the new tax is unpopular in Parliament may be inferred from the falling off of the Government's majority in the Commons. It sank about fifty below the normal when the vote on the second reading of the corn duties was taken. The Liberals are taking up the new issue with avidity, and there is even talk of reviving the Anti-Corn Law League. This will probably not be done, unless the war should go on and the corn duties go higher. Then, indeed, the old battle might have to be fought over again, and of some future Prime Minister it might be said, as it was said of Sir Robert Peel, that he "gave his fellow-countrymen abundant and untaxed food, the sweeter because it is no longer leavened by a sense of injustice."

A study of the platform adopted by the Republican organization in Indiana shows the difficulty which politicians now encounter in formulating issues and in drawing lines between the parties on such issues. The Indiana Republicans are "gratified that Cuba will soon pass to the control of her own people"—although Senator Beveridge, who "sounded the keynote," took pains to point out that this control amounts to little, in view of our "suzerainty" over the island. The Indiana Republicans also "favor just and liberal reciprocal relations between the United States and the republic of Cuba"—but they refuse to tell what would be "just and liberal." The House recently passed a bill for a petty 20 per cent. reduction of duties. Does this meet the demand, or should the rate be 40 or 50 per cent.? As to the Philippines, the Indiana Republicans hold that American sovereignty must be respected; favor the establishment of absolute peace, and the erection of civil government, and "insist that the people of the islands shall be given increased participation in the administration of their domestic affairs, as they shall demonstrate intelligence and capacity for self-government." Of course, they are "opposed to all Trusts or combinations of capital whose purpose or effect is to restrict business or control prices," and, of course, they "especially denounce those whose tendency it is to increase the cost of living and the necessaries of life." They favor "legislation to prevent such abuses," but they do not point out what new laws are needed. They "adhere to the policy of protection," but they favor "such modifications of tariff schedules as, from time to time, are required by changing conditions," and they are ready to accept "carefully guarded reciprocity arrangements" with other countries wherever such arrangements can be made "without interrupting our home production." But whether at the present time any modification of tariff schedules is required, or whether the reciprocity treaties now pending before the Senate are "carefully guarded" and

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would not "interrupt our home production," they refuse to say.

We doubt if there was ever a case where the first important State convention of the dominant party under a new Administration presented so colorless a statement of party faith. Liberal pensions, Chinese exclusion, the keeping out of undesirable immigrants, the suppression of anarchy, opposition to combinations which increase the cost of living, justice and liberality toward Cuba, peace in the Philippines—what opposition party could make an issue on such vague deliverances as these? The difficulty rather is to arouse any enthusiasm in the dominant party over a programme so indefinite. There is one feature of the Indiana platform, however, which affords ground for rejoicing—the plank on the sectional issue which is not there. Representative Crumpacker has been for years the chief advocate of the scheme for cutting down the representation of the Southern States in Congress and the electoral college because the negroes are not allowed to vote, and he was urgent for the endorsement of the idea by this convention. But the managers refused him the slightest encouragement, and kept all reference to the South out of the platform. This may be considered the formal rejection of the attempt to revive the sectional issue, and its worldly wisdom is past question.

The attention of all New Yorkers has been so largely concentrated upon some defects in the Police Department, and two or three "breaks" in other branches of the Government, that people have overlooked the excellent work which is being done almost everywhere by the Low Administration. The most important thing of all is the fact that we have honest men at the heads of the various departments, and that as a rule their honesty is supplemented by ability. They are saving money, and they are accomplishing greater results with smaller expenditures. Efficiency is being restored in branches of the service which had become demoralized—notably the Street-Cleaning Department. In the Water Department the new Commissioner has discovered a system of fraud in meter-inspection, and has instituted a reform by which he estimates that $600,000 a year will be added to the city's revenues from supplying water. The Building Department in the Borough of Manhattan has practically been revolutionized, as an agency for securing protection to life through a fair enforcement of the law. Equally commendable are the host of minor reforms which have already been introduced in the Charities and Health Departments. Each of these great departments has to do with the well-being of a host of people who had been shamefully neglected and abused under Tammany. The conditions in the various institutions under the Charities Department were shocking when Mr. Folks took charge, and the list of changes for the better already made means an immense gain in public decency and in the comfort of helpless wards of the city. The Health Department has been equally zealous in work for the protection of the public at large. In short, the spirit of civilization now governs in the conduct of the city Government, and the beneficent effects are becoming more plain every week. It is already clear that New York is to profit immensely from the Low Administration.

Corporation Counsel Rives's revised opinion on the advertising ordinance now before the Board of Aldermen shows a change of mind as gratifying as it is sudden. There seems, in fact, to have been a lack of clearness in his earlier opinion, owing to the confusion of restrictive with prohibitive legislation. Mr. Rives now holds that to limit sky-signs to a height of ten feet and to prescribe their material and construction would not exceed the charter powers of the Board of Aldermen. It is to be hoped, then, that the Ware ordinance now under consideration may soon become law. The Corporation Counsel's second opinion maintains that restrictive legislation concerning bill-boards and similar structures finds its justification only under the ordinary police powers of the city—that is, all hoardings which are not proved to be prejudicial to the public health, safety, or morals have a right to existence, and are not fairly amenable to restrictive legislation. This view at least is conservative, and it still leaves considerable play for reform. It is wholly consistent, too, with the very elaborate and well-considered report of the Chicago Master in Chancery on the bill-posting ordinance of January, 1901.

That the French elections would result in a substantial vindication for the Ministry was a foregone conclusion. If on the reballoting the Government does as well in the 173 arrondissements in which there were no choices on Sunday, as it has done in those in which Deputies received their majority, M. Waldeck-Rousseau will bring to the Palais Bourbon a majority of certainly a hundred. Let it be remembered that, when he became Premier, three years ago, he could hardly command a majority of a score, and the measure of his present success is fairly shown. Yet the mere fact that there was nearly a third of "no-choices" shows that the Progressists and other Republican factions very generally failed to rally to the Ministry. Paris is traditionally hostile to the Government, and the failure to elect, on the first ballot, a single Ministerial Deputy in the capital city is rather an annoyance than a serious check. The Government will still have to deal with that nondescript and brawling faction which has rallied under the banner of Nationalism, and, with reduced political power, retains possibilities for mischief-making. The solidarity of the country districts in favor of the Government is the most gratifying feature of the elections, for it shows that nothing like a real monarchical feeling survives in France, and that the Royalists and Imperialists are just about as important in France to-day as the followers of "Charles the Martyr" are in England.

Ominous or promising, according to point of view, are the repeated reports of industrial disturbances in Russia. Not so long ago a strike would have been out of the question, and manufacturing enterprises were of the most primitive character. In 1885 there were in European Russia, excluding Poland and Finland, 62,801 manufacturing, mining, and industrial establishments of all sorts, with a laboring force of 994,787, and an annual output valued at 1,121,040,270 rubles. In 1893 the establishments, under the influence of incorporation and consolidation, were 39,029, but the people employed had increased to 2,098,262—more than double—and the output had risen to 2,839,144,000 rubles. Meanwhile the growth of the textile industries has made manufacturing centres of Moscow and other ancient cities. When the peasant becomes a mill-hand, he is perforce aroused from his century-long stupor, and he faces the stern facts of modern industrial life. The mere bringing together of masses of people about the mills means the accumulation of inflammable material. The powers that be have nothing so much to fear as an enlightened and restless prolétariat, and such a class is actually forming in Russia, if slowly. Even more alarming are symptoms of political discontent among the peasantry. The Moscow correspondent of the London *Times* writes that the bread riots in Little Russia are of a political nature, and not, as has been supposed, a simple expression of agrarian distress. It is said that educated Russians have been spreading the Socialist propaganda widely among the peasantry. Though it is too early to estimate the importance of the movement, it is clear that its very existence constitutes a menace to the present order of things in Russia. The strength of the empire is the ignorance and loyalty of the peasants. When these peasants demand political rights, the empire will be put to the test, and it will be seen whether Nicholas II. has that personal force and that ability to see beyond the influences of the court which characterized his grandfather.

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FINANCIAL SIGNS OF THE TIMES.

A survey of the financial situation, at this time, reveals a singularly interesting state of things. Abroad, the Boer war, for nearly three years a millstone on the neck of British industry, is apparently about to end. The production of Transvaal gold, cut down from $9,000,000 per month in 1899 to almost nothing in 1901, has risen already to two million dollars monthly, and will reach its figures of three years ago when the Cape railway is no longer clogged with Government transportation. The Continent, in advance of these new supplies of gold, is slowly recovering from its trade prostration.

In the United States, industrial prosperity continues at a rate hardly anticipated even in the hopeful forecasts contributed to the *Evening Post* on the 31st of last December. The basic iron market is in a state of unparalleled activity, with production at much the highest rate in history; the monthly output, by the last returns, running some 200,000 tons, or not less than 15 per cent., beyond the same period in 1901. Railway earnings, as now coming to hand, average fully 7 per cent. above last year, with an increase of barely 2 per cent. in mileage. Trade payments through the clearing-houses of interior cities are running 15 to 20 per cent. beyond 1901, and 30 to 40 per cent. beyond 1900, and their decrease in the East is wholly attributable to the relatively smaller stock speculation. The first of the harvests, winter wheat, will possibly be deficient, owing to the drought; but the loss may easily be repaired with good luck in corn and by the spring wheat acreage. The currency seems to be secure; the revenue is abundant, and evils arising from such sudden expansion in the Treasury surplus as tightens the money markets, are in a fair way to be corrected by an intelligent revenue-reduction law.

On the surface, then, almost all indications would appear to point to continued prosperity and industrial happiness. How does it happen, this being so, that many of the most careful and experienced watchers have expressed misgiving over the situation, and are looking, from time to time, for signs of a possible coming storm?

Such misgivings, we imagine, whether well or ill founded, base themselves wholly on the current experiments with capital. We are not among those who discourage the bold and aggressive use of capital at a time of trade prosperity. It is an axiom of sound finance that such a period, when credit is easy, capital ready for investment, and the profits of industry substantial, is the hour for bringing to a head plans for further developing the country's industrial capacity and power. If it were not done then, it would never be done. But if the structure is to stand in all its parts, it must be soundly built. Its foundations must be laid on solid rock, which will not give way in days of trade reverses, harvest failures, and hard times. The first question asked by those who scan with the eye of experience a movement of prosperity is, To what extent has fixed capital been adjusted to the emergencies of the future?

Examination of the present position, from this point of view, discloses some reasons for legitimate disquiet. A glance at the industrial prospect shows a capitalization of existing prosperity so enormous as to create grave doubts as to the ability to sustain its full obligations in the future. With scarcely an exception, the country's industries have been reorganized in corporate form with liabilities on an absolutely unheard-of scale. It is not pretended that the issues of stocks and bonds, poured into Wall Street during the short span of five years since the last depression, have been limited by the mere ratio of increased profits. Immense as that increase has unquestionably been, the ratio of increase in capitalization has trebled and quadrupled it. Vast possibilities of further expansion may reasonably be assumed for the still more distant future. But the liabilities of scores of corporations have been adjusted, not merely to what is actually earned to-day, but to the full expectation of what the next decade may further yield. The suggestion that disappointments may occur before this goal is reached, is rather commonly received with incredulity. The way in which this "discounting" process is being managed is also somewhat striking. Share capital can bridge an interval of reaction, or even calamity; but the characteristic symptom of the past twelve months has been the increase by hundreds of millions in that part of capital which must pay its regular fixed charges if the company is to weather insolvency.

We have stated, we believe, in moderate language a condition which every intelligent man with his eyes open knows to exist. There is no one in the community who cannot add some pertinent fact to the recital. We mention further only this—the scattering of the money of corporations on so lavish a scale that it fairly staggers the observer's mind. Sums which would have equipped a great corporation a dozen years ago, and which might do so again, are, month by month, disbursed outright to syndicates for the mere service of guaranteeing the sales of new securities. To some extent, this may be prudent and necessary finance; but it is calculated to make old-fashioned spectators stop and wonder who is to foot the bill.

How far these huge sums of money, poured out with so free a hand, have themselves been raised by credit operations, is another question suggested by the returns. The answer is not altogether easy to find. The expansion of loans at credit institutions may mean a dozen different things, according to the collateral that lies behind them. Taken by themselves, the figures show that in two years the loans of the New York city banks have been enlarged by $119,000,000, and those of the trust companies in this State by $223,000,000. This is an increase of no less than 30 per cent. We believe this expansion, in a single community and in so brief a period, to be not only utterly unparalleled in history, but wholly unexplainable, except on the theory that the capitalization of our huge new corporations still rests for the most part on the support of bank credits.

We are writing in neither a pessimistic nor an alarmist vein, and with full understanding of the strong points of the situation. But the signs of the times to which we have called attention are sufficiently striking, in our judgment, to demand the most careful watching by people who have the interests of the community at heart. One quite reasonable conclusion from an examination of this sort is that our banks ought to take very early measures for the better adjustment of their reserve resources to their deposit funds. For weeks, our clearing-house institutions have averaged only a trifling fraction over the 25 per cent. minimum assigned by the National Banking Law. This is scarcely wise when the deposits of these institutions, in addition to the funds of individuals, savings banks, and interior banks that keep a cash reserve at home, now include $100,000,000 or thereabouts from the trust companies, which is the only cash reserve maintained by those companies against their own $792,000,000 deposit liabilities. It is also our opinion that so novel and perplexing a situation makes it imperative that the trust companies should, like the banks, publish their weekly statements, and let the financial public know the state of their credit fund. The time for application of prudent reforms in such directions is a time like the present—when the industrial skies are clear, the country's business hopeful and prosperous, and the credit system untouched by the breath of doubt.

BENEVOLENT GRABBING.

Senator Lodge complains of his unhappy lot in being compelled to sit out the Senate debate on the Philippine bill. As chairman of the committee having the measure in charge, he is obliged to be present at its dissection by Democrats. The Republican plan is, of course, to pass the bill on the good old principle of addition, division, and silence. They can vote for it, but they cannot defend it; for it is, in truth, an elaborate and complicated plan to do what Gov. Taft told the Philippine Com-

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mittee would be absolutely fatal to American rule in the archipelago—namely, to "exploit the islands."

To refresh our memories, and to show the original professions from which the Philippine bill so widely wanders, we will reprint the so-called Spooner amendment to the Army Bill of 1901. This is a record of our intention expressed in law. We would not attempt to pin Imperialists down to unctuous phrases about "benevolent assimilation," which may mean little or much—probably nothing. But here is the actual legislation, the intention enshrined in a statute, which we were told last year was to be the noble charter of our government in the Philippines:

> "Provided, That no sale or lease or other disposition of the public lands [in the Philippines], or the timber thereon, or the mining rights thereon, shall be made; and provided, further, that no franchise shall be granted which is not approved by the President of the United States, and is not, in his judgment, clearly necessary for the immediate government of the islands and indispensable for the interest of the people thereof."

All this was expressly set down as the great principle by which we were to be guided in our Philippine Administration "until the establishment of *permanent* civil government." Yet the Senate bill of to-day, which dares allege no more than that it is "temporarily" for the government of the Philippine Islands, does completely and in every respect what Congress declared a year ago should not be done. Who does not remember the virtuous complacency with which the Spooner resolution was pointed to as an evidence of our disinterestedness? All property in the archipelago, with all franchises, we were to hold as a sacred trust for the inhabitants. American concessionaires were to be unknown in the whole archipelago. Let the unblushing English promoters swarm to their New Jerusalem in Johannesburg; we would show to the world a purer example and loftier motives. That was what we said; now what do we propose to do?

Read the Senate bill, which the Republicans do not wish to discuss at all (and no wonder), and find an answer. It is a bill to allow American exploiters to take everything in sight, and many things out of sight, in the Philippines. After some meaningless preliminaries about a possible future government of the islands, which there is no pretence of setting up for a long time to come, the bill gets down to business, and with minute particularity arranges for squeezing every drop out of the Philippine orange. Sections 11-16 provide for "the lease, sale, or other disposition of public lands other than timber or mineral lands." Timber lands are looked after in section 16, where, under ostensible leave only to "issue licenses to cut timber," and to "cut timber sufficient for a mill site," or to "cut timber to get access to the lands where timber-cutting is authorized," the exploiter's axe is lifted up against the Philippine forests which we promised should be reserved for the natives. Next the bill takes up "mineral lands," and proposes to enact an entire mining code, sufficient to extract all the coal and precious metals in the archipelago without so much as a polite bow to the natives. "Franchises, privileges and concessions" are thoroughly attended to in section 76 *et seq.*, and if any Senator, in the course of the debate, can think of any bit of Philippine property which might possibly escape grabbing under the bill, we do not doubt that Senator Lodge would graciously accept an amendment to prevent the inhabitants from doing what they will with anything that is their own.

The whole thing is a shameless surrender to the exploiters. This Senate bill of 1902 bolts the Spooner resolution of 1901 whole. If Congress was honest in passing that, it cannot be honest in enacting the present measure. Either we were hypocrites a year ago, or are swallowers of our own words now. Nor is it simply a question of consistency and sincerity. The bill is fraught with danger. It ought to be, like the Spooner resolution, attached to the Army Bill, for if it becomes law, it will undoubtedly require the raising of additional troops to keep the Philippines in subjection. This was, as we have said, a point on which Gov. Taft expressed strong convictions to the Philippine Committee. How well grounded were his warnings against the military peril of exploiting the islands, we may see in our recent troubles in Mindanao. There is evidence that they are due, in part at least, to an "American invasion" of exploiters. In the orders issued by Gen. Davis on March 4, he said: "In some extensive regions it is said that the inhabitants wish to remain isolated and to exclude visits from Americans. It is the military policy to endeavor to overcome and counteract this idea, and thoroughly to explore the country." Yes, and the "punitive expedition" necessarily follows. Unless President Roosevelt succeeds in checking these attempts to exploit even the Moros, he will soon have to be calling on Congress for a larger army. Imperialism has now thrown off its mask, as regards the Philippines; and it will be plain henceforth that if there is more fighting in the islands, it will be for the purpose of aiding those who are there, not for the good, but for the goods, of the inhabitants.

THE ADAMS DOCTRINE.

It has long been known, of course, that the so-called Monroe Doctrine really had its birth in the brain of John Quincy Adams. President Monroe had neither the mind to conceive it nor the courage to promulgate it, apart from his illustrious Secretary of State. Ever since the publication of the Adams Memoirs this has been understood by historical students. The English writer, Mr. W. F. Reddaway, for example, whose little book on the Monroe Doctrine was published in 1898, gives it as the result of his researches that "the peculiar form of the Message of 1823 was due to John Quincy Adams"; and adds that "he, and he alone, logically applied it in politics." This is a commonplace with American historians.

None the less, peculiar interest and importance attach to the recent delvings by Mr. Worthington C. Ford in the archives at Quincy and at Washington. His findings he gives us in his brochure, just published, on the connection of John Quincy Adams with the Monroe Doctrine. He has unearthed documents from the Adams manuscripts, and brought out for the first time dispatches from the records in the State Department, which elevate inference to certainty, and which show us the Monroe Doctrine in the act ual making, with a clearness never before attainable. We see now with absolute distinctness what American statesman it was who perceived in the advances of Canning and the communications of the Russian Minister the great opportunity to formulate and announce the principle of the free and independent Americas. It was Adams who asserted the exemption of the New World from political meddling by the Old, and who frankly accepted the logical corollary, that America should keep its hands off Europe. Monroe had so dim a conception of the way in which these two parts of his Doctrine hang together that, in the very message proclaiming it, he was proposing to reproach France for invading Spain, and to recognize the Greeks as an independent nation. This, as Adams protested, would have been a plain interference in questions purely European, and would have been a strangling of the Monroe Doctrine in the cradle by its reputed father. What the prescient Secretary wanted to do was "to make an American cause and adhere inflexibly to that." He, at least, saw how essential to such a cause it was to "disclaim all interference on our part with Europe." The difficulties and mortifications which he experienced in bringing over the timid and easy-going Monroe to his point of view, are minutely explained and illuminated by the writings which Mr. Ford has brought to light.

Behind the Monroe Doctrine lies a political philosophy which it did not formulate. To affirm our desire and intention to maintain a political system on this continent free from any foreign influence, might be only an assertion of brute force, if we had not had some strong and guiding principle determining our ac-

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tion. But we had, and by no pen was it laid down more clearly and forcibly than by that of John Quincy Adams. His opening was given him by the Russian Minister, who informed our Government of the purpose of Russia not to recognize the independence of any of the South American republics, and, at the same time, improved the occasion to refer to the "political principles" which the Czar deemed applicable to the case. In this Adams saw both a challenge and an opportunity. "If Alexander could exploit his political principles—those of a brutal, repressive policy—the United States could show that another system of government . . . could give rise to a new and more active political principle." Accordingly, the Secretary of State prepared a draft of "Observations on the Communications Recently Received from the Minister of Russia." It was a paper which underwent much mutilation before the President would allow it to be read to Baron de Tuyl, the Russian Minister. Yet, taken as a whole, it is a powerful statement of the moral and political principles which not merely justify the Monroe Doctrine, but which underlie our very existence as a nation.

One of the omitted parts, now first reproduced by Mr. Ford, is so telling an epitome of our historic polity, and so pertinent a reminder of the paths from which our feet have strayed, that it deserves the widest reprinting and discussion. Here are the words in which the Adams Doctrine, that alone gives life and vigor to the Monroe Doctrine, was set down by that early American statesman who had as vast a hope for the continental expansion of his country as Jefferson, yet who could as little as he think of the flag flying over soil where the truths for which the flag stands are denied:

"The Institution of Government, to be lawful, must be pacific, that is, founded upon the consent and by the agreement of those who are governed; and each Nation is exclusively the judge of the Government best suited to itself, and no other Nation can justly interfere by force to impose a different Government upon it. The first of these principles may be designated as the principle of *Liberty*—the second as the principle of National *Independence*—They are both Principles of *Peace* and of Good Will to Men."

That utterance is strong enough for all the latter-day sneerers at Anti-Imperialism to break their eye-teeth upon. There spoke the man of mighty ambitions for his native land. There spoke one of the most assertive Americans that ever lived. He would have our rule extend from sea to sea; he would have Cuba come under our flag, but only as her people freely consented; yet our modern expansionists, with their doctrine of brute force, their resort to cruelty and oppression, their disregard of the Constitution and of the maxims which lie at the foundation of it, would clearly have been abhorrent to his soul. It is perfectly certain that if "the old man eloquent" were to return to the floor of Congress, and to be told what the United States is doing in the Philippines, he would make the ears of all who heard him tingle. In his Diary he once wrote: "My speech of this day stung the slaveocracy to madness." If he were alive and speaking to-day, it would be the madness of his Imperialist opponents which he would have to record.

THE OPEN DOOR.

In a speech on the Cuban Reciprocity Bill in the House, a few days since, Congressman Douglas of this city alluded to a matter of great importance in our trade relations with our insular possessions and with foreign countries, which has hitherto received scarcely any attention. It involves the whole policy of the "open door" upon which we have laid so much stress in the adjustment of affairs in the Far East. The subject was touched upon incidentally by Mr. Douglas in these words:

"We are to-day, as a nation, so far as I can see, most inconsistent, and are doing many things which will likely be prejudicial to our future good and welfare. We have shut the door of Porto Rico to other nations. We have also closed the door in the Hawaiian Islands. We have closed it partly in the Philippine Islands, and propose to do so entirely before long. And now Cuba comes in very likely for the same treatment, and we expect to shut others out; and yet all the time we are talking very loudly about the open door in other directions, as China, Japan, India, Australia, South Africa, New Zealand, etc., and we had better pause and consider. We have also extended (or proposed to do so, although we have no ships to carry the cargo) our coastal laws to all of the possessions mentioned, even to the Philippine Islands, 10,000 miles away, after 1904. The commercial bodies of other nations are giving these matters careful attention."

Almost simultaneously with the utterance of this warning, a colloquy took place in the House of Commons between Mr. Markham of Nottingham and Viscount Cranborne on the subject of exports of hemp from the Philippines. The former asked whether the Foreign Office had any information to the effect that the United States Government had passed an act in relation to exports of hemp from the Philippines whereby a preferential rate had been enacted in favor of America; and, if so, whether, in view of the effects on the rope and other trades of such preferential rates, the Ministry purposed making any friendly representation to the United States Government. Lord Cranborne replied that no preference was given in the Philippine Islands in respect of the duty on hemp exported to the United States, but on the following day he was obliged to correct an error into which he had fallen by assuming that all hemp is dutiable under the United States tariff at a uniform rate.

He said in his corrected statement that Manila hemp is free of duty in the United States, while other hemp is subject to a duty of $20 per ton. The export duty on hemp established by the Philippine Tariff Commission is $7.50 per ton, but under our special Philippine tariff act it is provided that this export duty shall not be charged upon hemp sent to the United States "for use and consumption in the United States." The net result of this arrangement, said Lord Cranborne, is that "the American manufacturer has, in his own market, an advantage of $7.50 per ton over his British competitor." That the American manufacturer's advantage extends to other markets would seem to follow from the fact that we have no machinery for detecting the presence of Manila hemp in cordage, twine, bagging, or any other article of export. Even if it could be detected, the Constitution prohibits duties on exports.

So it appears that by a juggle, which was not generally understood at the time, we have humiliated ourselves before the world, and thrown away all claim to stand as a representative of the "open-door" policy in the Orient or anywhere. The wise arrangements made by Secretary Hay in his correspondence with the Powers in reference to trade in China depend upon the exercise of good faith on our own part. Great Britain was one of the Powers with which the correspondence was exchanged, and now we have been the first one to violate it. We have "put up a game," by which we get an advantage over other nations of $7.50 per ton in the hemp trade of the Philippines and in the industries dependent upon it. The contrivance is rather ingenious. It looks a sharp Yankee trick, and it would be interesting to know who devised it. Of course, the same Congress which passed this Philippine Tariff Bill ought to amend it by striking out the discriminating paragraph, but Congress has so many things to do, and so many blunders to correct, that we can hardly hope for any such action until the trouble becomes menacing. One way to overcome the difficulty, or, speaking more plainly, to checkmate the fraud, would be for the Philippine Commission to repeal the export duty on hemp. Then all buyers would stand on an equal footing.

In the colloquy referred to, Lord Cranborne said that at the time when the Philippines were annexed to the United States, the British Government had sought an assurance that no preferential rates of duty should be imposed which would be detrimental to any old established trades between Great Britain and the Philippines. He did not say what response had been received, but it is within the recollection of American citizens that Secretary Hay and President McKinley expressed their intention to maintain the open door in the Philippines in the same spirit in which they expected and desired that it should be maintained in China. Of course, they did

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not assume to bind their successors in office or the Congress of the United States.

When we turn our eyes from the East Indies to the West, we find a similar situation, and one which is already producing anxiety in Great Britain. We have admitted the products of Porto Rico free of duty, while we impose taxes on those of the neighboring islands. These islands produce sugar, which comes mostly to the United States in exchange for our agricultural and manufactured goods. As Porto Rico is a small island, and its production of sugar is relatively limited, the harm that can be inflicted upon our trade with the English and French Antilles, by preferential treatment in favor of Porto Rico, is perhaps not appreciable. But the case is very different with Cuba. The latter is capable of producing all the sugar that the United States now consumes, so that, in course of time, if we should establish and continue reciprocal trade with Cuba and not offer the same treatment to those islands, our imports from the latter would cease. In that case the island governments would probably retaliate by giving preferential rates to Canada, which would be able to supply most of the agricultural products, meats, and fish wanted by them, and to England, which would then supply even a larger proportion of their manufactured goods than she now sends to them. It was in view of this contingency that treaties of reciprocity with those countries were framed and sent to the Senate during President McKinley's Administration. The reason why these treaties were shelved is well known. They should be ratified simultaneously with the proposed treaty with Cuba.

It is not too soon for the commercial bodies of the United States to look seriously at the questions outlined in Congressman Douglas's speech. If we do not observe the open-door policy as regards our new possessions, we cannot expect that other nations will observe it in their dealings with us. We must bear in mind that Great Britain has power to put serious obstacles in the way of our trade with Australia, India, Egypt, South Africa, and many other continents and islands. In China, too, her coöperation with us is necessary in order to keep open the door which Russia is all the time trying to close. Everything points to the need of fair play on our part if we wish to reap the advantages in foreign trade to which our resources, skill, and capital entitle us. We cannot demand the open door unless we maintain it. Our motto should be *do ut des.*

THE RICH AND THE OLD-BOOK MARKET.

The prices at the Lefferts sale recently held in this city were of a kind to sadden the collector whose memory runs back over a score of years. It required two columns in the newspapers merely to record the titles of the books (some sixty out of four hundred sold) which brought more than fifty dollars at the first night of the sale. No one could quarrel with the record price of $700 for Bunyan's 'Holy War,' 1682, for this little volume, like most of the Bunyans, was almost thumbed out of existence by the pious, during the evangelist's lifetime. Some of the really scarce items were even cheap; the 'Songes and Sonnettes' of the Earl of Surrey, 1567, was absurdly low at $1,100, being of the highest rarity. It is not these larger prices, but the fact that book after book in the recent sale brought quite as many dollars as it was worth shillings a few years ago, that gives the collector pause. Why should books often of no especial rarity bring in the auction room twice and three times the prices at which they may still be bought in foreign book-shops, simply because they are sold in New York?

To the confirmed collector there is more than mere chagrin involved in this matter. He regrets less the happier days when he still cut a modest figure at the sales than he deplores the lack of discrimination which pays for books more than they are worth. An Oriental merchant is deeply offended at the ignorant Occidental who pays him his first price. Such an abridgment of the transaction not only is a discourtesy to himself, but argues a lack of interest in his goods. Similarly the wealthy collector who writes to his agent, "Buy No. —," shows an attitude towards books which is precisely that of a housekeeper *de luxe*, who writes down on her December tablets, "Strawberries for luncheon to-day."

If the booksellers about town would submit their marked sales-catalogues for inspection, the number of unlimited or discretionary orders which are registered thereon would plunge all true collectors into still deeper gloom than is caused by the bare facts of the sales. Now it should not be necessary to say that, whatever his wealth, the true collector is never regardless of price. To get the coveted object only at its fair price is his simple duty, to get it far below the price is his most refined pleasure and ultimate triumph. To all these sweetest emotions of the collector, the man who lodges discretionary orders and unlimited bids is oblivious. What wonder, then, that the collector eschews him?—admits him to be a conqueror, a very Tamerlane of the auctions, but insists that he is, after all, a barbarian.

Naturally, dealers look with complacency upon their many clients who bring unlimited zeal and money with very little knowledge to their collecting; for the millionaire to whom a library of rarities is, like a steam yacht, merely an appanage of great wealth, will scrutinize more closely his builders' contracts than his booksellers' bills. But it is a question if this half speculative increase in book values is really in anybody's interest. In the stock market it would be called roundly "dangerous inflation." The dealers are tempted to follow the example of the more careless bidders, to pay more than books are worth or are sure to bring again. Then the fact that book-buying becomes a matter of lavish expenditure attaches it too closely to the general course of prosperity. It certainly is an indignity that books, as has happened, should fail to bring their real value, like wines of the rarer vintages, simply because stocks are sluggish.

But there is a still finer point of ethics involved. Suppose several agents find themselves at a book auction, each with an unlimited bid for a book of no great rarity. The case is not an imaginary one; under these conditions the strangest things have happened. Mr. Bullen's charming "Muses Library" has, while still in print, sold for several times its published price, and the commoner issues of the Roycroft Press have been carried up out of all reason. This is a case where the literal execution of an unlimited order comes perilously near to playing upon a customer's ignorance. In a sense, the agent is bound only to execute the order; in another sense he has a duty, a somewhat delicate one, to enlighten the bibliographical darkness in which a valuable patron is well content to live.

True collectors must extract what comfort they may from a sufficiently painful situation. Many of these books which are captured in humiliating fashion, by the brute force of money, afterwards gain reinstatement through passing to the public libraries, where they serve the general good. Then the more optimistic indulge the hope that these millionaire collectors are not wholly ineducable. Many in the past and many in the present have the finesse of the genuine collector, and merely add to knowledge of books and diligence in searching for them that proper audacity, grounded upon both knowledge and wealth, which every one must applaud. Meanwhile it is the duty of all whom it may concern to bring home to *parvenu* collectors the errors of their ways. To send in an unlimited bid on an object of average rarity is not merely an immoral act. In the eyes of the *cognoscenti* it is much worse than that; it is a capital impropriety—a gross breach of the finer traditions of collecting.

Correspondence.

"THE STATES."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: When referring to this country, our English cousins generally employ one of

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two designations — "America" or "the States." The former lacks precision, and savors of arrogance, in restricting to part of one continent a name which belongs to two continents. The latter, though such was not formerly the case, is now applied to no other country than our own, and is at once concise and precise. Moreover, so convenient is it that we Americans, when travelling among British subjects, readily fall to using it. And yet the American who should employ it at home would, by his fellow-countrymen, be looked upon as guilty of using a foreign phrase, of affectation, and of Anglomania. If, however, it can be shown that the expression was first employed not in England, but among ourselves, then the objection to its use by us, based on its supposed British origin, falls to the ground.

That the word "State," in the sense of "body politic," was in common use in this country throughout the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries could be abundantly proved, were it necessary. For a few years even before the Declaration of Independence, though no single colony was individually called a State, the colonies collectively were occasionally referred to as "the American States" or "the States of America." When, therefore, on July 4, 1776, the thirteen colonies ceased to be colonies and were formed into a union of States, it was inevitable that each should individually be called a State, and that collectively they should be called "the United States of America," or "the States of America," or "the American States," or "the United States," or simply "the States." This last term, it need scarcely be pointed out, had long been employed to designate the States of Holland. Thus there was nothing novel in the term itself; indeed, in the correspondence of Franklin and of others, where "the States" are spoken of, it is often only by the context that one can tell whether the reference is to the United States of Holland or to the United States of America.

The following extracts illustrate the three phases through which the term under discussion has gone among ourselves: first, it was applied to the United States collectively; secondly, after the acquisition of Louisiana, it was used to designate the States in distinction from the Territories; and, thirdly, it was again applied to the United States as a whole, but merely as a reflection of British use. The last of the extracts seems to indicate that the term has entered upon a new phase.

"It is true that the king being the head of the American states, and at the same time under the control of the two houses of parliament here [England], a virtual control arises to them from thence over his conduct in America." 1773, June 11, A. Lee, in *Life* (1829), i. 231.

"The following is a Copy of an *infamous Thing* handed about here last Tuesday Evening, and now reprinted to satisfy the Curiosity of the Public. As it is replete with consummate Impudence, the most abominable Lies, and stuffed with daring Expressions of Tyranny, as well as Rebellion against the established, constitutional Authority, both of GREAT-BRITAIN and of the AMERICAN STATES, no one will hesitate in pronounsing it to be the *genuine* Production of that perfidious, petty Tyrant, *Thomas Gage*." 1775, June 8-15, *New England Chronicle*, No. 359, p. 2\1.

"The resolutions being read aloud to the army, the following toasts were given, . . . 1. The American Independent States. . . . The Union Flag of the American states waved upon the capitol [at Williamsburg] during the whole of this ceremony." 1776, May 17, in Wirt's *Life of Patrick Henry* (1818), p. 195.

"Sir:—The Congress having yesterday been pleased to promote you to the rank of Brigadier-General in the Army of the American States, I do myself the pleasure to enclose your commission, and wish you happy." 1776, Aug. 10, President of Congress to A. St. Clair, in *St. Clair Papers*, i. 372.

"St. Patrick's day, multitudes of Irishmen in the streets with green in their hats. Went into the city [London] & called at the N E Coffee house, where I heard that the states had elected Genl. Washington, *Lord protector*." 1777, March 17, E. Oxnard, in *N. E. Hist. & Gen. Register*, xxvi. 225.

"I am just now also transiently told that he [Franklin] had been received in the public character of a plenipotentiary from the American States." 1777, March 20, A. Hamilton, *Works* (1886), vii. 478.

"The Congress of the United States of America have seen with concern in the public newspapers an edict of the late King of Portugal, dated at the Palace of Ajuda the 4th of July, 1776, wherein the States are spoken of in terms of contumely." 1777, April 26, B. Franklin, *Works* (1888), vi. 91.

"Billy and Sam C—— and Bob Schaw will be obliged to leave Carolina for not taking the oaths to the states, and so must several Scotch, for the like crime." 1777, June 21, James Murray, *Letters* (1901), p. 266.

"The Committee . . . are also to take the Names of all Refugees & other disaffected Persons & take the Names of all Towns & States, from whence such persons come, who are justly suspected of being inimical to the States of America." 1777, March, *Boston Records*, xviii. 277.

"Mr. John Pidgeon . . . brings fresh news of our Success against ye Enemy in recovering ye Fort on Hudson's River, which they had lately taken from ye States, & fortified more Strongly, which is called Stoney Point, near King's Ferry." 1779, July 21, Rev. E. Parkman, *Diary* (1899), p. 148.

"I immediately wrote to the Inhabitants in general, Informing them where I was and what I determined to do desireing the Friends to the States to keep close to their Houses and those in the British Interest to repair to the fort and fight for their King." 1779, Nov. 9, G. R. Clark, *Campaign in the Illinois* (1869), p. 68.

"Capt. Derby, in a large ship of his brother's, is now at Nanz, to return in a month; which is encouraging to all not under the ban of the States." 1783, Feb. 14, S. Curwen, *Journal & Letters* (1864), p. 404.

"But I hope your forgiveness for saying that the assiduity of the British Commanders to restrain the Indians from hostilities still wanted the visit which by your command I have made to them, to satisfy the Indians that they had nothing to fear from the enmity of the States." 1783, Aug. 18, E. Douglass, in *Penn. Archives*, x. 90.

"In a visit I lately made by the North river to the lakes, in the necessity I was under of returning thro' Canada to the States, I was informed of some of the measures adopted by the British Government in that province." 1784, Oct. 30, J. Monroe, *Writings* (1898), i. 39.

"They feel the consequences of trade and commerce with America too sensibly to pursue such mistaken policy as that which lost not only this commerce but the subjection of the States." 1784, Nov. 26, J. Tyler, in *William & Mary Coll. Quart.*, i. 37.

"The Spaniards, the French, the English, and the States of America, have had many and painful proofs of their address and prowess in this method [of Indian warfare]." 1794, S. Williams, *Hist. Vermont*, p. 148.

"Washington [County] . . . ought to be extended to the St. Croix, or what the natives called the Magacadava, but the English have crouded in on the states as far as the Cobscook," 1795, J. Sullivan, *Hist. Maine*, p. 396.

"Colonel Allen and Major Lunno met at the same place [Isle aux Noix, Canada], and the Major requested Colonel Allen to put down in writing the most important matters for the consideration of the Commander in Chief . . . . Colonel Allen declined writing anything on the subject, lest his writings should be exposed (which would be dangerous to him in the States, and destroy his influence there)." 1798, I. Allen, *Hist. Vermont*, p. 165.

"Our principal communication from Lower Canada to the States, is by way of Lake Champlain and St. Johns." 1799, *A Tour through Upper & Lower Canada*. By a Citizen of the U. S., p. 5.

"Yesterday captain Lewis while hunting killed a bird not common in the states: it is like a magpie and is a bird of prey." 1804, P. Gass, *Journal* (1807), p. 40.

"Caught a curious little animal on the prairie, which my Frenchman termed a *prairie mole*, but it is very different from the mole of the States." 1804, Z. M. Pike, *Sources of the Mississippi* (1810), p. 31.

"In the states, those who follow the plough, are scattered over the country; while the mechanics, and retailers of merchandise, gather in a cluster. Hence the difference in the appearance of the towns or villages of this country, from those of the states." 1814, H. M. Brackenridge, *Views of Louisiana*, p. 119.

"She had seen [at New Madrid, Missouri] families of fashion and opulence, from 'the states,' as they call them, and from old France settled there." 1826, T. Flint, *Recollections of the Last Ten Years*, p. 228.

"After the death of Pe-shau-ba, I wished to have made another attempt to come to the States; but Waw-zhe-kah-maish-koon prevented me." 1830, J. Tanner, *Narr. of Captivity*, p. 177.

"The inhabitants were uneducated French people, who . . . expressed much surprise when I told them the ground they lived upon was in dispute between Great Britain and 'the States.'" 1838, J. T. Hodge in C. T. Jackson's *Second Report on the Geol. of the Public Lands*, p. 62.

"Molly proved unfaithful to her first husband, and eloped with her two children, in order to enjoy the society of Joe in the States." 1841, G. Powers, *Hist. Sketches of Coos*, p. 182.

"The banks of the Purgatory, where this stream debouches, begin to assume something of a mountain aspect, different from scenery in the States." 1846, Lt. W. H. Emory, *Notes of a Mil. Reconnaissance* (1848), p. 17.

"I thought of 'caching' everything, and walking into the States; but what was to be done with the sick man?" 1847, Lt. J. W. Abert, *ibid.*, p. 534.

"In spite of this, however, and in spite of narrow and dirty streets, the city [Montreal] has a *finished* air, which distinguishes it from all towns of equal size in the States." 1854, B. Taylor, *At Home & Abroad* (1860), p. 169.

"The newspapers in 'the States,' the title by which the islanders [of Porto Rico] distinguish the home country from its new possessions, have just recorded certain experiments made in Connecticut." 1902, Feb. 6, *Nation*, lxxiv. 107\2.

The history of the term thus proves to be curious. First used by ourselves, frequently employed for a few years, it gradually fell into disuse in this country, was adopted in England, and is now so completely obsolete in the land of its birth as to be regarded by us as of British origin. It is, then, a question not of introducing a foreign term, but of readopting one of our own discarded expressions.

ALBERT MATTHEWS.

BOSTON, April 1, 1902.

"AS FIT AS A FIDDLE."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The colloquial phrase "as fit as a fiddle" (= in good "form," or condition)

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seems to be quoted in Dr. Murray's New English Dictionary only from the years 1882 and 1889. For an earlier use—apparently with a different meaning—see Beaumont and Fletcher, "Women Pleased," iv. 3:

Bart. Am I come fit, Penurio?
Pen. As fit as a fiddle;
My master's now abroad about his business.

W. P. M.

HAVERFORD, PA., April 24, 1902.

A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I rectify a misunderstanding which seems to be involved in one or two of the statements (in the report of the meeting of the National Academy of Sciences) on page 323 of your last issue? The theory of compressible atoms is not advanced to explain the law of gas volumes discovered by Gay-Lussac and Humboldt; that law is already adequately covered by older hypotheses. The new theory is rather suggested in order to explain plausibly the anomalies exhibited by the structure and contraction of *solids* and *liquids*, as well as the inexactness of the equation of Van der Waals.—Yours faithfully,

THEODORE W. RICHARDS.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY, CAMBRIDGE, MASS., April 28, 1902.

Notes.

Prominent among Doubleday, Page & Co.'s forthcoming publications is Dr. John Henry Clewell's 'The History of Wachovia'—an account of the Moravian Church in North Carolina during a century and a half, 1752-1902.

Volumes v. and vi. of Captain Brinkley's monumental work on Japan and China (Boston: The J. B. Millet Co.) will be issued next month, completing the numbers allotted to history, literature, manners, and customs. Volumes vii. and viii. will treat pictorial and keramic art respectively. The remaining four will be devoted to China. The set will be complete with the year.

A new edition of Clive Holland's 'My Japanese Wife,' with illustrations by Genjiro Yeto, is in the press of the F. A. Stokes Company, who also announce for the fall an important collection of 'Bismarck Letters,' in two volumes.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. will offer to vegetarians and others interested Mr. Sidney Beard's 'Guide-Book to Natural, Hygienic and Humane Diet.'

We receive, through the courtesy of Messrs. M. Knoedler & Co., the catalogue, in folio, of the 'Collection Edmond Huybrechts,' which is to be sold at auction in Antwerp, May 12-15. The volume is sumptuous even for its expensive kind, and abounds in heliogravure reproductions of the rarer pictures. These we cannot enumerate at this time, but it may be remarked in passing that the older Dutch and Flemish schools are fully represented—by Rubens, Van Dyck, the elder Brueghel, two admirable Terburg portraits, and a Wouvermans snow scene, among others; the modern Belgian schools claim Baron Leys (fifteen examples), and an interesting series of Van Beerses and Alfred Stevenses. The chiefs of the Barbizon school—Troyon, Rousseau, Corot, and Diaz—are well represented, while a fine Géricault may be named among the older pictures of the French school. Scattering pictures, Italian and Spanish, many of indefinite attribution, complete the assortment. A tiny panel, "The Virgin with Angels," by the rarest of old French masters, Jean Fouquet, is the gem of the collection. One could wish that some turn of good fortune might bring it to the Metropolitan Museum. It is of the loveliest quality. The catalogue may be obtained through the Knoedlers or other of the prominent local dealers.

A wife's devotion and inexperience excuse the bulk and disorder of 'Men and Memories: Personal Reminiscences,' by John Russell Young, edited by May D. Russell Young (New York: F. Tennyson Neely). The book is unreadable connectedly, and the late Mr. Young's journalistic style had no charm to make literature of his collected articles. That on Lincoln, designed to form part of an original work having some coherency and plan, exemplifies the merits and defects of the writer. As reporter of the Gettysburg speech, he has something really significant to tell us of the total want of effect produced in the brief delivery from a single sheet of paper. One who has patience may find a similar reward in running through these scrappy jottings about Forney, Bayard Taylor, Grant, Edwin Forrest, Whitman, Bennett, Greeley, Raymond, Jennings, Curtis, Phillips, Lowell, Dickens, Henry George, etc., etc. Not a few letters to Mr. Young from notabilities are to be encountered in this medley.

Mr. David W. Hoyt, Providence, R. I., sends us Parts vi. and vii. of his 'Old Families of Salisbury and Amesbury, Mass., with some Related Families of Adjoining Towns and of York County, Maine,' which usher in his second volume. They are mostly derived from eighteenth-century records of Salisbury and Amesbury churches now in private hands. The compiler-publisher is continuing the work at a loss, and its prolongation and size must depend on the support of those interested.

An attempt to establish a Kentish connection of the New Jersey Woodruffs is made in a brochure of thirty-eight pages by Francis E. Woodruff of Morristown. Copies are for sale by the New Jersey Historical Society, in Newark.

From the Unit Library, Limited (London and New York), come the first four numbers of its new series of reprints: 'The Vicar of Wakefield,' Sterne's 'Sentimental Journey,' Darwin's 'Origin of Species,' and Emerson's 'English Traits.' These books are of a size for the pocket, and are neatly bound in red paper, cloth, or leather, according to price. The paper is poor, and the letter-press only tolerable. The editors, however, offer the inducement of an excellent choice of texts, fidelity to good editions, and brief bibliographical notes. The originality of the enterprise lies in the fact that these reprints are sold according to number of pages—that is, roughly, by cost of production. The "unit" is twenty-five pages, for which, and every fraction thereof, ½d. is paid. Covers are paid for separately, 1d. for paper, 5d. for cloth, 1s. for leather. This makes the first issues cost, in paper: 'The Vicar,' 5½d.; 'The Sentimental Journey,' 4d.; the 'Origin of Species,' 11d.; 'English Traits,' 5d. It will be seen that these prices compare favorably with that of "Morley's Universal Library," or of the Cassells' still cheaper series of pocket reprints in paper, while the Unit Library engages that all texts chosen shall be reproduced in their integrity. The "unit" plan, it may be said, in passing, is merely a refinement upon that of the admirable "Reclam-Bibliothek." To follow the present issues are Hamilton's Memoirs of Count Gramont, Goethe's "Faust" (Anster's translation), Burney's 'Buccaneers of America,' Browning's 'Poems' (1833-'58). The quality of the proof-reading remains to be determined.

As already announced, the second 'Year Book of the Pennsylvania Society of New York' does more than report the second annual festival of that body. It abridges a number of articles of the twelvemonth which relate to Pennsylvania, like Mr. S. W. Pennypacker's comparison of the Quaker to the Puritan commonwealth, to the disadvantage of Massachusetts; and has papers on Revolutionary parks, monuments, and memorials, 1901; memorial portraits, 1901; historic anniversaries and celebrations; historical buildings, etc., as well as reviews of new Pennsylvania books, a long list. The illustrations are numerous, diversified, and often curious in the extreme—from a sketch-map of Fort Duquesne to a view of Valley Forge, and from Pennsylvania Quaker silhouettes to the map of a preliminary survey for Mason and Dixon's line. The 'Year Book' may be had of the Secretary, Mr. Barr Ferree.

The fifteenth bound volume of Mr. Charles F. Lummis's *Land of Sunshine*, the last to bear that name, which passes into *Out West*, reaches us from Los Angeles, Cal. The usual rich variety is spread before us, and on the material and social side we select for mention papers on how to colonize the Pacific Coast, on Rochdale Coöperation in California, on State and national irrigation policies and the struggle for water. The editor contributes two more authentic translations of sources of early Western history, of which Perea's report on New Mexico, in 1632-33, will be included in the sumptuous edition of Benavides's Memorial now in press under Mr. Lummis's direction.

Decided interest attaches to the January-March number of the *American Journal of Archæology* (Macmillan) by reason of Prof. R. B. Richardson's description, with illustrations, of the series of colossal statues at Corinth uncovered by the American School at Athens, of which he is the director. Neither the statuary nor the architectural ornamentation, being Roman work of the second century A.D., is intrinsically beautiful, but there is considerable novelty in adaptation and in the pseudo-Caryatid construction.

"Who Burned Columbia?" is asked and answered, with probability if not conclusively, by Mr. James Ford Rhodes in the *American Historical Review* for April. The origin of fires, whether accidental or incendiary, is too frequently indeterminable in ordinary times to make the debatability of a war-time conflagration unnatural. Southern authorities early and fiercely fixed the sole blame on Sherman, as having deliberately ordered the wiping out of Columbia. This would make the story of the event a peace tract. Mr. Rhodes's inclination is to make of it rather a temperance tract. A jail delivery of Union prisoners as well as convicts threw upon the town, deprived of all civic control, elements bent on reprisal or

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plunder. The first Union troops to arrive "were at once supplied by citizens and negroes with large quantities of intoxicating liquor, brought to them in cups, bottles, demijohns, and buckets." This made them unmanageable and prevented their use as guards in preserving public and private property. After dark the sack of the city was accompanied by the firing of buildings. "Some fiend" began it; but who was he? The Union generals who arrived on the spot before Sherman, did their best to stay the flames, but almost in vain. The next morning, February 18, 1865, the Third Brigade killed 2 men, wounded 30, and arrested 370 in restoring order.

The latest form of Count Gubernatis's activity is visible in the International Hellene-Latin Society of his recent founding at Rome. The constitution of this society is given in the first number of its fortnightly organ, the *Cronache della Civiltà Ellcno-Latina* (Rome: Corso Umberto I., Palazzo Bernini, No. 151), in the production of which he has had the laboring oar. From his pen are long articles on Victor Hugo, General Stephen Türr, Sully-Prudhomme and Mistral and Gaston Paris, and the Goethe statue at Rome; and his are the greater part of the book reviews. The *Cronache* is a fair quarto of 32 pages, in which one may expect to meet and to understand Italian, French, or Spanish, into one of which languages will be concurrently translated any article in another tongue that may be admitted. Not one word of Greek appears in this first issue, except in the title. There are several illustrations, chiefly portraits. We will call attention further to a private letter from the Uruguayan Minister, Dr. Daniel Muñoz, on the changes which Castilian has undergone on the American continent. This movement of Count Gubernatis's smacks somewhat of a response to pan-Teutonic assumption of world-superiority.

Count Gubernatis's 'Su le Orme di Dante' receives notice in the April number of the *Zeitschrift für Bucherfreunde*, beginning its sixth volume (Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). The number is, however, essentially a monograph on the British Museum, with many illustrations of the building and its literary treasures, by H. A. L. Degener of Oxford. The editor, Fedor von Zobeltitz, and his publishers have to confess that this admirable periodical, a pioneer, has not yet made the meat to feed on and prosper. Accordingly a rise in the subscription price has been resolved on—to nine marks the quarter-year.

A Spanish weekly journal *Vida Nueva* (New Life), which numbers among its contributors many of the best Spanish authors, has recently published some startling revelations concerning the application of torture to accused persons in order to extort confessions of their guilt. A workman on a railroad was charged with stealing a piece of freight, arrested by the police, and thrown into a subterranean dungeon, where he was subjected to cruel torture by means of thumb-screws, which crushed his hands. He proved to be innocent of the alleged crime and was released. Although threatened with severe punishment if he should reveal what had occurred, he went to several physicians, as well as to the editors of different papers, showed the condition of his hands, and made a full statement of the case. The *Vida Nueva* took the matter up and found, as the result of further investigations, that judicial torture is still practised in Spain, and that instruments employed by the Inquisition for inflicting pain are still in use. In this instance the inquisitors (two in number) were tried and sentenced to six months' imprisonment for "exceeding their powers" and showing "excess of zeal in the exercise of their office." On their release they might find congenial occupation in the Philippines.

Dr. J. C. Kapteyn of Groningen, Holland, continues the publications from his astronomical laboratory; No. 5 being a mathematical discussion of the distribution of cosmic velocities, prepared with the collaboration of his brother, W. Kapteyn, professor at Utrecht. It forms an important contribution to stellar theories, in that it is an attempt to deduce from the observations a so-called "law of the velocities"—that is, the law which defines the number of stars having a linear velocity equal to a third, a half, double, or perhaps triple that of the solar system in space. Or it may be stated as the law in accord with which the frequency of a linear velocity is expressible as a function of its magnitude. The investigation may be regarded as in a sense tentative, and the time is fast approaching, in consequence of the able work of Campbell at the Lick and Frost at the Yerkes Observatory, when its results will in great part be superseded by those deducible from spectroscopic methods whose accuracy is independent of distance. Another paper by J. C. Kapteyn (No. 8) embraces a discussion of the average distance of stars whose magnitude and proper motion have been ascertained. His conclusions suffice for the deduction of certain generalizations on the distribution of the stars throughout space, and the frequency of different degrees of absolute brightness in the stellar universe.

The letter of Levi Woodbury, among the historical manuscripts published in the April Bulletin of the Boston Public Library, recalls an almost forgotten episode in our history, the Congress of American Nations at Panama in 1826. The heated controversy as to whether the United States should take part in it led to the bloodless duel between Randolph and Clay, about which this query is raised: "How far will the retention of Mr. Clay in the Cabinet after this be an approbation of the duel?" Woodbury's comments on the manner in which J. Q. Adams spent a part of an appropriation for furniture for the White House is interesting as showing the feeling about amusements in many prominent men of that day. "It has been a subject of mortification here to his friends, and must have astonished you, I think, that *'a billiard table* $50,' *'billiard balls* $6,' *'chess men* $23,' etc., etc., should compose a part of the articles purchased by him with this public fund and should go down to our posterity as a part of the furniture for the *President's use*—in this virtuous stage of our country's growth and history. The newspapers have, to my joy, been very silent about this, and I hope yet that some explanation can be given, but none has been attempted up to this time here." A passage in one of Gen. Henry Dearborn's letters, referring to the Presidential campaign of 1823 and the "small chance for an election by the people, . . . which would be a great misfortune," gives expression to a fear which there has been small opportunity to justify. "No other circumstance will, in my opinion, so much tend to a disunion of the Confederacy as contested elections of President by Congress."

—Those who fear lest the Japanese hand should lose its cunning in artistic industry may be reassured by reading the circular of information just issued by the Higher Technological School of Tokio, which was established in May, 1881, for the instruction of artisans, in pursuance of an act of the Department of Education. By an imperial ordinance of last year the school has taken its present name. It is under the direct control of the Minister of State for Education. Its edifices and grounds, occupying more than 15,000 square yards, are on the river Sumida, facing the broad way leading to the great Asakusa public gardens, which almost every foreign visitor in Tokio visits. Two canals afford special facilities for transportation to the furnaces, experimental shops, and laboratories. The departments are the Higher Technological School, the Annex School of Industrial Apprentices, the Training Department of Industrial Teachers, and the Annex School of Industrial Supplementary Education. The arts taught are dyeing, weaving, keramics, applied chemistry, mechanical engineering, electricity, industrial designing, work in metal and wood, lacquer, etc. In the twenty-one years of its history, the school has graduated 974 persons, who are now serving as engineers, foremen of factories, and teachers in industrial schools, while others are pursuing their studies in Europe or America. Thirty-seven are in military service under the conscript law, and only 2 per cent. are unknown to the School authorities or to public fame. The term of each course extends over a period of three years, and the work prescribed is both theoretic and technical. The school hours in the higher school are thirty-nine per week, and the year of work is from September 11 to July 10. The age limit for entrance is under twenty-five in the higher school, and, besides the vernacular, the applicant must know English, sciences, and mathematics—in other words, have an education equivalent to that of the Middle School. After graduation, at least one year must be spent under the supervision of the School, in practical work in factory or workshop. Provision is made for eclectic students, and certificates are granted. The Annex School for Industrial Apprentices holds from April 1 to March 31, or the entire year, the school hours per week being from thirty-five to forty-four; and graduates must serve two years under supervision for training in practical work. The Annex School of Industrial Supplementary Education is, for the most part, a night school. As matter of fact, it is not possible, amid the absorbing demands of modern work and fashion, to get work done like that, for example, at the World's Exposition in Chicago, or recently in Paris, where the architecture and decorations of the middle and early ages were reproduced, except through these graduates of the high Technical School in Tokio. The value of such education has been demonstrated beyond cavil.

—Louisa Evelyn Denison has edited, and E. P. Dutton & Co. have published, 'Fifty Years at East Brent: The Letters of

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George Anthony Denison, Archdeacon of Taunton.' Hardly could there be a more representative biography contributory to the ecclesiastical history of England during the last half of the nineteenth century. During that period, "the god of things as they are," the established order and belief, had no protagonist more mettlesome than Archdeacon Denison. Born in 1805 and dying in 1896, he was about five years younger than Newman, and outlived him about five years. They had much in common; much in difference. Denison's was a much more conservative mind than Newman's, as fixed as Newman's was restless; the ancient landmarks counted for much more in his reverence and affection. Hence he remained an Anglican in spite of storm and stress. He was a High Churchman of the type that anticipated the Oxford Movement, and at a time (before 1830) when Newman was still evangelical. This beautiful book, with its charming head-piece illustrations and excellent portraits, compresses the first forty years of the Archdeacon's life into a brief preface, and opens the long series of his letters at 1845, the year of Newman's Roman submission. Thereafter Archdeacon Denison was foremost in the assault on every new form of liberal thought or usage, every new concession to the liberal spirit. The Gorham decision, which gave Manning's Anglicanism its quietus, first invited his opposition; then 'Essays and Reviews'; next "the many and mighty errors" of 'Ecce Homo'; while Temple's appointment to the Exeter bishopric, the assault on the Athanasian Creed, the Church Schools Bill, the Burials Bills, and finally 'Lux Mundi,' each of them found him a resolute opponent of innovation. 'Lux Mundi' he denounced as the most deadly blow *ab intra* that the Church had ever received. "The unfettered exercise of the right of private judgment" was for him England's "dishonor and her sin," and "the use and application of intellect simply that of confirming ourselves and others in the implicit acceptance of what has been revealed." There is something very interesting in the consistency of a mind untroubled by a single doubt of the traditional forms of worship and belief.

—Villemain, writing of Edward Young in 1864, declared that the power of the author of 'Night Thoughts' was not yet exhausted; but a subsequent generation that responds indifferently to the profounder *Weltschmerz* of Chateaubriand and Byron has little predilection for the diluted melancholy of the eighteenth-century clergyman. It is very probably for this reason that the elaborate monograph by Dr. W. Thomas (Paris: Hachette), entitled 'Edward Young: Étude sur sa Vie et ses Œuvres,' has succeeded in fulfilling the demands of contemporary literary study by showing no obvious bias. This voluminous work of six hundred pages may claim a place on the same shelf with Dr. Angellier's monumental 'Burns' and Dr. Léon Morel's 'Thomson.' (One may well ask, in parenthesis, why English scholars have allowed such lacunæ to be filled by French pens.) Of the two principal divisions, the second, treating of the character and influence of Young's work, is the more valuable and interesting, for in the preceding biographical chapters the noteworthy features are merely the rectification of dates, and the attempt at vindicating Young from charges so often made concerning his self-seeking worldliness. But Dr. Thomas's examination of Young's critical ideas and of the rôle played by the 'Night Thoughts' in the history of literary relations between England and the Continent practically exhausts the subject. An occasional exaggeration in detail may be noted. There is, for instance, no ground for tracing Byron's "Sorrow is knowledge" to Young's "Knowing is suffering" (p. 497), seeing that both poets must have been familiar with Eccl. i, 18. Young certainly did not invent the verb *uncreate*, which occurs in the famous peroration of 'The Dunciad'; and who but a foreign critic would imagine that in the following verse Young intended the word *because* to be accented on the first syllable?

"Shall Truth be silent because Folly frowns?"

—Mr. A. G. Bradley, who has already published a life of Wolfe, returns to the subject of the Seven Years' War in 'The Fight with France for North America' (Dutton). The volume before us either represents a second impression, or else the book has been slow in reaching this country, for the English edition appeared last year. We mention this fact because Mr. Bradley writes specially and avowedly for English readers. It is a source of regret to him that there should be no general knowledge in England of the events whereby the French were driven from their possessions on the St. Lawrence and in the West. "Every schoolboy knows, or is popularly (or probably very erroneously) supposed to know, the details of the Plains of Abraham, but I will undertake to say that there are many thousands of schoolmasters who have never so much as even heard of the still bloodier battle of St. Foy, fought upon the same ground, within six months, by the same troops." The modest purpose of this volume is to lighten such darkness. Mr. Bradley, by drawing from Warburton, Kingsford, and Parkman, succeeds in getting together such information regarding the war as is most essential, but in important respects this book leaves much to be desired. For example, the character of the Old Régime in New France is not well grasped, or Mr. Bradley would never have written this passage: "They [the French Canadians] had been, in fact, slaves—slaves to the *corvées* and unpaid military service—debarred from education and crammed with gross fictions and superstitions as an aid to their docility and their value as food for powder." While we have no desire to write an apology either of seigniorial tenure or of the ecclesiastical system, we must protest that these words are greatly exaggerated. If Mr. Bradley will examine, for example, the actual obligations of the *censitaires*, he will find that the Canadian tenantry were far from being slaves. In short, he has prepared his narrative without much reference to the large body of literature on the subject which exists in French. Considering the professed limitations of his purpose, this may not be a fatal omission, but the larger interests of historical writing suffer by such neglect. "I make no attempt in these pages to address the serious student of this war, if, indeed, there be any such on this side the Atlantic. I have few incidents to relate that have not been told with greater elaboration elsewhere; indeed, I am writing more especially for those to whom nearly the whole story will be new." Mr. Bradley shows much fondness for his theme, and he is not unlikely to gain readers among those who constitute his chosen audience, but his book has been loosely put together, and will be less useful here than in England, where little notice has yet been paid to the details of the contest.

—The 'Review of Historical Publications Relating to Canada' continues to be edited each year by Prof. G. M. Wrong and Mr. H. H. Langton (The University of Toronto: Published by the Librarian). Volume vi. contains few long articles, but during the past twelvemonth there has been no dearth of books and articles which suggest minor notice. The history of Canada as a whole seems to be attracting more attention than that of the separate provinces. Of the other departments here represented, "Archæology, Ethnology, and Folk-Lore" comes first, with "Geography, Economics, and Statistics" next. Dr. A. F. Chamberlain of Clark University has made himself the *cheval de bataille* for this number of the 'Review,' since no less than forty-seven titles are credited to his share. Col. Cruikshank and Mr. J. S. Carstairs have also been active contributors. The only other signed articles are by Professor Davidson and Mr. Angus MacMurchy, so that, on the whole, the reviewing continues to be largely anonymous. The longest single article is devoted to the life, works, and autobiography of Sir J. W. Dawson. Among other interesting reviews we may mention Mr. Carstairs's criticism of the 'Military Life of Field-Marshal George, first Marquis Townshend.' This is a misleading book on an important subject—the conduct, namely, of operations before Quebec, and the character of Wolfe as a commander in the campaign which has given him abiding reputation. Col. Townshend, the author of the biography, has gone wrong in a multitude of details, plagiarized openly from Warburton, and taken up the cause of his ancestor against Wolfe with more vehemence than knowledge or discretion. We should point out that this work is not historical in the sense of excluding from its pages reference to contemporary life and progress in Canada. In examining each new 'Review,' we are impressed by the care which is taken to secure completeness in this respect. This year, there is a good deal about Imperialism, the Canadian troops in South Africa, the present status of Newfoundland, the development of coal and steel industries in Cape Breton, and the geographical exploration of the Northwest. Another point ought also to be emphasized. The present work has a rather peculiar bibliographical value. That is to say, the literature relating to Canada that appears each year is not so vast that it cannot be kept in hand by two vigorous editors. As a result, few items of any importance are omitted, and the reader at a distance may use this 'Review' with the feeling that he has before him a conspectus of current writing upon the Dominion and its provinces, which is practically complete.

HARRISSE'S DISCOVERY OF NEWFOUNDLAND.

Découverte et Evolution Cartographique de Terre-Neuve et des Pays Circonvoisins, 1497-1501-1769. Par Henry Harrisse. London: Henry Stevens, Son & Stiles. 4to, pp. 420, with 26 plates.

Mr. Harrisse, having set forth his theo-

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ries regarding the course of cartographic development during the sixteenth century in his great work on 'The Discovery of North America,' published in 1892, has now gone on to show how these theories stand the test of an exhaustive detailed study of a single well-defined locality. Newfoundland provides an admirable subject, in every way suited to his purpose, by its early and continuous prominence on the maps, and because of Mr. Harrisse's especial familiarity with the history of the region. It does not appear that he has ever visited the northeastern American coast, but for thirty years his studies have repeatedly led him in that direction. The Cabots, Corte Real, the printed and manuscript sources for the history of New France, the discovery of the Mississippi, have provided subjects for books and essays from his pen, very nearly equalling in amount his voluminous writings about Columbus. High expectations were aroused by the announcement of this latest work by the master student of the period of discovery, and it is a pleasure to report that the two handsome quarto volumes amply justify the anticipations of those who were most familiar with his previous works.

Mr. Harrisse presents these volumes as a study in cartographic method, as an attempt to find out what maps have to offer towards increasing the stock of knowledge of the history of the world. If his results are not, on the whole, very striking, if no very considerable additions are made to what was before known regarding the course of events, the fault is not with the method nor with the way in which it has been applied. The investigator must perforce be content with what his material contains, and Mr. Harrisse has undoubtedly extracted well-nigh all that was to be got from the maps of Newfoundland. When a student goes beyond the usual sources of information, each new scrap of detail, however insignificant in itself, affords valuable means of verifying and substantiating the general mass of information already made familiar. Data secured from other than the ordinary written narratives have a peculiar importance in checking the documentary material. Mr. Harrisse's 'Terre-Neuve' has thus a value for historical students much greater than its contribution to their knowledge of the geographical history of eastern Canada and Newfoundland, because it reveals most clearly how many things there are which ought to be known before the early history of that region—and of every other—can be understood completely. By his analyses of the maps, Mr. Harrisse shows repeatedly that voyages were made, coasts visited, explorations undertaken, many years before the earliest expeditions to the places in question which are recorded in the surviving written documents.

There are two distinct divisions, not always distinguished, and perhaps not clearly appreciated, by Mr. Harrisse, in the study of the way in which geographers have arrived at what is now supposed to be an exact representation of Newfoundland. The first traces the way in which the coast line was put down, fragmentarily, on the sailing-charts of successive voyagers, and then coördinated and verified upon the mariners' maps at the home ports. The mid-Atlantic forelands visited by the Corte Reales and by the fishermen of Western Europe little by little attached and detached themselves to and from the neighboring coasts; slowly, but on the whole regularly, progressing toward an accurate portrayal of the triangular mass of headlands and inlets which make up Newfoundland. The fishermen and sailing-masters, familiar with the ways of seacoasts, understood how little reliance can safely be placed upon maps, even those of one's own making, and so they had little trouble off-shore or on the high seas. They took the land as they found it, charted it for future guidance, and fixed its relative location as best they could to match with the other shores they and their friends had visited. The few examples of their handiwork which are still in existence prove that these sailing-charts hit upon the real facts with surprising exactness. The reason is obvious; the makers were under no inducement to delineate anything of coast or continent beyond what they personally knew about. Troubles began when these charts reached the workrooms of the professional map-makers, whose business it was to portray the whole world, with all its component parts.

The second division of Mr. Harrisse's subject introduces us to the men who made a business of geography, and who, having, like some of their successors, seen very little of the outlying parts of the globe, tried to find out how they ought to represent the lands beyond the North Atlantic fishing-banks. What should they do, for example, with a chart giving a roughly drawn representation of the curious quadripartite peninsula of Avalon, in from Cape Race? Other charts, quite as correctly, because drawn by men who had sailed around the cape from St. John's to St. Mary's, showed this same tract as a rectangular promontory. How was the geographer to tell which was correct, with no common scale of measurements and no clue by which to harmonize the contradictions? Each geographer of necessity based his ideas and his maps upon those of his predecessors, with nothing to show where personal observation ceased and scientific guessing began. Ruysch, who had visited the Newfoundland waters, published a remarkably correct representation of the Avalon peninsula at Rome in 1508; but those who used his map, at some far-away German seat of learning, had no means of knowing that this was the one single detail which must not be altered, and that all the rest was drawn in accordance with sound general principles, subject to amendment upon specific information from actual observation. Mr. Harrisse supplies abundant material for studying these phases of his subject, but without hinting at their interest or their real significance. For him, everything centres around the "schools" whose existence and relationship he first described in his 'Discovery' of 1892. His groupings by nationalities, localities, and derivative adaptations are most suggestive, but he would surely be the first to explain how much still remains to be found out before his conclusions may safely be accepted as the complete explanation of the divergencies and the anomalies of early American cartography. As yet there is no one fully competent to traverse Mr. Harrisse's opinions on matters of American discovery, the field in which he has for so long been preeminent. No one else has his intimate familiarity with the whole course of the history of this period, or his exhaustive acquaintance with the documentary and cartographic literature. Whatever corrections may be made hereafter in the details of his work, to Henry Harrisse will always be due the credit of outlining the subject, and of showing how cartographic history should be studied.

Whenever Mr. Harrisse's chapters deal with matters of fact or opinion which are subject to independent verification, a careful examination shows that, as we have pointed out more than once on former occasions, his practice does not always conform to the rigid and unexceptionable rules of exactness which he so frequently lays down for the guidance of historical investigators when dealing with the lapses of those he differs from. Indeed, his pet aversion, the Spanish Academicians who failed to make him one of their number, and whose sins are many, never issued a volume containing more aggravating slips of the pen and of the attention than occur in Mr. Harisse's 'Terre-Neuve.' The watchful reader will presumably not be misled by the remark that in 1500 "huit *mois* s'étaient écoulés depuis la découverte de l'Amérique" (p. 10), or by a quotation from "Thomas Jefferson, *alors* secrétaire d'État, au Congrès des États-Unis en *1761*" (p. xxxix). The statements on page 214 that the coast line on La Cosa's chart runs "de l'Ouest à l'Est, ou du Sud-*Est* au Nord-*Est* (suivant l'orientation réelle . . . de Terre-Neuve)," and on page 37 that the Corte Reales "commencèrent à se tourner vers le Nord-Ouest et l'*Est*," are too palpable slips to worry the reader, were it not that they are typical of faulty orientation in the author's mind. The last quotation may, as a matter of fact, be quite correct, for the sixteenth-century chroniclers wrote of voyages across the Atlantic from Europe "going eastward" so often that there is a strong presumption that they used the phrase to signify that the voyage was on the route for the Orient. Mr. Harrisse, however, long ago committed himself to the correction of East into West in each of these passages, and he does not easily alter a decision once made. His difficulty in keeping the compass clearly in mind is distinctly shown on page 249, where he observes that a map which omits "une grande partie du littoral Ouest" of the island resembles another, "tout en omettant aussi la côte orientale." Somewhat more exasperating is the account of the Paris Gilt or De Bure globe, where the text states that the Avalon region is represented as two large islands, while the accompanying sketch of the configuration on the globe shows one of these islands—the one whereon hangs the argument of this particular paragraph—clearly attached to the main body of Newfoundland. Of ordinary misprints, such as careful proof-reading would have obviated, *e. g.*, "Alfonse part de la Rochelle le 16 *août* 1542 (après *Pâques* qui tomba le 9 de ce mois)," on page 156—there is no lack, as appears from a list of more than 50 errata, not including those mentioned above, printed at the end of the work. It is doubly a nuisance to have to be on guard at every statement to see if the text correctly expresses the author's obvious meaning, in such a work as this, where the nature of the subject and the method of treatment alike require for profitable reading the constant exercise of the keenest critical attention.

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It would be unfair to close this notice without mentioning the admirable phototype plates additional to the 165 sketches and outlines drawn by Mr. Harrisse to illustrate the arguments of the text. Although they represent only the field of Mr. Harrisse's studies, which includes the entire St. Lawrence basin and much of the New England coast, this is usually sufficient to exhibit the typical characteristics of the maps, so that students of other sections of the coast can infer where to look for desired information. In nearly every case the plates are copied directly from manuscript maps not previously reproduced, or at best known only through sketch drawings.

LADY SARAH LENNOX.

The Life and Letters of Lady Sarah Lennox, 1745-1826. Edited by the Countess of Ilchester and Lord Stavordale. With numerous photogravure portraits. Two vols. London: John Murray; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901.

George II., who made Kensington Palace his chief place of residence, used frequently to walk in Kensington Gardens. One day, in 1750, as he was taking his usual promenade, a little girl who had just broken away from her Swiss governess ran up to him and said with a laugh: "Comment vous portez-vous, Monsieur le Roi, vous avez une grande et belle maison ici, n'est pas?" What spasm seized the nurse, history does not record, but the King was much pleased with the child and asked that she might be brought often to see him. On the occasion of one of these visits "he suddenly snatched her up in his arms, and, after depositing her in a large china jar, shut down the cover to prove her courage; but soon released her when he found that the only effect was to make her, with a merry voice, begin singing the French song of 'Malbruc,' with which he was quite delighted." Curiously enough, this girl of five was a descendant of the Stuarts. She was Lady Sarah Lennox, fourth daughter of Charles, second Duke of Richmond, and therefore a great-granddaughter of Charles II.

Few Englishwomen of the eighteenth century had a more striking or romantic career than Lady Sarah Lennox. George II. romped with her, George III. wished to marry her, and she ended by becoming the mother of the three famous Napiers. Nor at this distance of time can there be any harshness in referring to another celebrated fact in her life, the liaison with Lord William Gordon, which led to her divorce from Sir Charles Bunbury, and adds one more element of the unusual to a most exceptional experience. Strangest of all, she retained the affection of her family and her closest friends in spite of the escapade which she calls her "fault." In Col. Napier she found a distinguished and devoted husband, while her brilliant sons worshipped, with the chivalry of their strong natures, the beauty, the sweetness, and the unselfishness of their "beloved mother."

The action of Lady Sarah's life properly begins in 1760, when she was fifteen years old. Regarding her attractiveness at this time there can be no question. Horace Walpole is often cited as bearing witness to her beauty, but one of the principal points in his statement about her is often omitted from such quotations. He distinctly says, in a letter to the Hon. H. S. Conway (September 9, 1761), that she has "neither features nor air." On the other hand, she was the "chief angel" among the numerous bridesmaids of the Princess Charlotte, and saw George III. marry this princess from Mecklenburg with no apparent disappointment at her own failure to become a queen. She was doubtless beautiful, but she had charm and animation as well, besides a kindness of heart which made her grieve more for her squirrel's death than over the political necessity which led George III. to select his wife in Germany rather than among his own subjects.

As might be expected, this incident is a prominent one in the memoirs, and we can at length see just what the advances were which the young King made. The whole story is too long to tell here, but it seems clear that Lady Sarah, though only sixteen, acted with perfect dignity while the addresses were being paid, and showed no petty resentment after the Duchess of Brunswick and Lord Bute had succeeded in directing his Majesty's glances elsewhere. There is every reason to believe that the keenest mortification was felt in other quarters. The Duke of Richmond is supposed never to have forgiven George III. for the slight paid his sister, while Henry Fox, first Lord Holland, felt all the grief of a disappointed politician. Lady Ilchester publishes for the first time the memoir which Lord Holland drew up "on the events attending the death of George II. and the accession of George III." To him a match between Lady Sarah Lennox and the King might conceivably mean a good deal, as she was his sister-in-law, and through her he might hope to reach a higher post in the state than his cleverness and nimble conscience had yet brought him. It is not our desire to turn aside from Lady Sarah for the sake of noticing Fox's innuendos against Pitt, or any other obvious features of his memoirs. None the less, it is a document with which the future historian of English politics during the Seven Years' War must be familiar.

At Holland House, Lady Sarah Lennox met her closest and most enduring friend, Lady Susan Strangways. She was the daughter of Lord Holland's elder brother, Lord Ilchester, and an own cousin of Charles James Fox. Romance entered her life through an Irish actor, William O'Brien, whom she married in defiance of parental opposition and lived happily with in spite of poverty. As the O'Briens went to America in 1764, and remained there for seven years, the horizon of Lady Sarah's correspondence expanded, and she herself began to take a keen interest in American affairs. During the Revolution she had many friends in the war, which she looked upon with abhorrence. Apropos of Bunker Hill, she writes: "Since I began this I've heard the news of the action near Boston. O Lord! how it makes one's blood run cold to think of *any action*, much more such a bloody one, and among one's own people almost."

Lady Susan O'Brien has been specially mentioned because these two volumes consist almost entirely of the letters which were written to her by the subject of the memoir. That Lady Sarah Lennox did not permit herself to be deeply disturbed by the King's marriage to another may be inferred from the fact that, a few months later, she was married to the most celebrated racing man of his day, Sir Charles Bunbury, whose horse "Diomed" won the first Derby. She was only a little more than twenty-three when she went away with her cousin, Lord William Gordon, and thus caused a scandal which could not be overlooked. By the intervention of both families the two were separated, and Lady Sarah entered upon a strict seclusion, from which she did not emerge until the end of twelve years. Having been divorced in 1776, she married in 1781 the Hon. George Napier, a remarkably handsome man, and one of the few heroes of the American war. Three of their sons—Sir Charles, the conqueror of Scinde; Sir George, the Governor of Cape Colony; and Sir William, the historian of the Peninsular War—were among the most eminent Englishmen of the next generation.

These remarkable incidents of Lady Sarah's history are not recited because they are unknown, but because her character, as it is discovered by her letters, cannot be fully understood unless one bears them constantly in mind. The social atmosphere of London in the era of Henry Fox and the elder Pitt was not conducive to moral exhilaration, and we need feel no deep surprise that Lady Sarah yielded so unreservedly to her natural impulses. The remarkable thing is that, once she had taken a false step, she did so much to redeem the past. She neither followed the familiar advice of Goldsmith which is applicable to such cases, nor did she permanently lose her self-respect. She had unbounded kindness and good humor, she loved her friends sincerely, and she called forth the adoration of her sons. The strong humanitarian sympathy, for example, of Sir Charles Napier seems directly traceable to her. It is to be seen first in her fondness for animals and her willingness to nurse them when ill; afterwards, in her girlish affection for Lady Susan Strangways; and, finally, in the sacrifices which she made to secure the proper education of her eight children. The depth of her family affection, combined with her feeling of admiration for generous aspirations, may be clearly seen in the letter which she wrote about her nephew, Lord Edward Fitzgerald, six weeks after his death from wounds in Dublin jail:

"If he had met with as fair dealings as his own he would have lived to have been as thoroughly known and consequently admired as he deserved to be by all good and honest men—men now blinded by the mysterious jugglings of a wicked set, who have availed themselves of the strong engine of *fear*, and worked on the passions of mankind till they have blinded some of the best. But yet wickedness cannot *always* thrive, and *truth* will force itself into light. To *time* and God I trust! That God, in whose presence that dear angel is, who judges his failings with mercy and his merits with an all-seeing power that rewards them justly!"

Lady Sarah Lennox was not an intellectual woman, nor was she at all points a model. At the same time one cannot help feeling that she had a sound heart, and that she possessed in abundance the qualities which command respect. Her son Henry, the historian of Florence, wrote a short account of her early life which is included in these memoirs. In it he refers to the "truth, single-mindedness, and natural unsuspiciousness of her character." Beneath the gayety of her early days and

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the trials of her prime, one can see the traits which are thus emphasized by one of her own family, and they add its chief charm to her correspondence. The gossip, whether social or political, is interesting enough, but of greater interest still is the woman.

We may say in conclusion that these volumes are very handsomely printed and illustrated. They have also been well edited. The biographical notes are full, and every effort has been made to render the letters easily intelligible to their readers.

The History of Mary I., Queen of England. By J. M. Stone. London: Sands & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1901.

At the Cambridge Local Examinations a question was once asked regarding the character of Mary I. In answering it, a candidate whose upbringing had been rigidly Protestant, kindled anew the Smithfield fires and justified the use of that dreadful epithet, "Bloody." But, with an unexpected leaning towards mercy, he concluded his indictment thus: "After all, we should not blame Mary too much, for it must be remembered that she had five stepmothers."

Mr. Stone goes far beyond such extenuation as this. His position is not that Mary's delinquencies are accounted for and pardoned by the unfortunate surroundings of her early days. He sees in her nothing less than a royal heroine whose virtues present a shining contrast to the vices of Elizabeth. In an age of moral corruption, she was exemplary, she kept a kind heart for her friends, and showed herself merciful towards her enemies; she was a devoted wife and a religious woman. Even the persecutions of the reign (natural enough though they were, at a time when Melanchthon and Beza applauded the execution of Servetus) need not be ascribed to the vindictiveness of the Queen, but must be placed largely upon the shoulders of Parliament.

"The persecution was a movement of expediency, set on foot by the Council as a means of coping with the disturbances. . . . But Parliament willed it, and 'it was not therefore,' says an authority on English law [Reeves], 'the policy of the Church but of the crown, and not merely of the crown but of the state.' It was the act of the crown with the authority of Parliament and the assent of the council."

Mary undoubtedly has been much maligned, and it is not undesirable that there should be a statement of everything that can be urged on her behalf. Besides Foxe, Strype, Burnet, Fuller, and Collier, modern historians have more often than not depicted her as morose and implacable. A passage which represents the current view of educated Protestants may be found in Dr. Bright's 'History of England' (vol. ii., p. 455). It begins in the following terms: "Philip's departure left the Queen miserable and almost mad. She roamed wildly about her palace, and sat grovelling on the floor in the twilight, with her knees drawn up to her face. She betook herself to the gloomy satisfaction of religious persecution, and in the three dioceses of Canterbury, Rochester, and London there was but little cessation of sacrifices at the stake." The trouble is that a traditional view is repeated over and over again by those who only look for the confirmation of it in Foxe, if they even look for it there. Mr. Stone goes somewhat too far in the other direction; but his personal estimate of Mary comes much nearer the truth than that which is furnished by the average historian of Protestant sympathies. The most candid and convincing account of her career is the article by Mr. Sidney Lee in the 'Dictionary of National Biography.' Mr. Stone gives fuller details, but as a critic he is less satisfactory.

Like other Tudors, Mary had a hasty temper, and Mr. Stone rather tends to minimize the effect which was produced upon her disposition by all the trials of her troubled life. Nevertheless, where kindness of heart is concerned, she at least appears to advantage in comparison with her father and sister. When dealing with the persecutions, Mr. Stone quotes quite properly from the 'Summa Theologica' the famous passage wherein St. Thomas Aquinas states that, considering the crime of heresy in itself, "heretics deserve not only to be cut off from the Church by excommunication, but to be cut off from the world by death. They are more guilty than those who coin false money, for it is more grave to corrupt the faith which is the life of the soul than to falsify coin, by which that of the body is supported; and thus they are justly put to death like other malefactors." The Church must never condemn the heretic at first, but may only consign him to the secular arm after he has proved obstinate and she despairs of his salvation.

Here, at least, is a general principle and one which Gibbon had in mind when he said, "I am more deeply scandalized at the single execution of Servetus than at the hecatombs which have blazed in the auto-dafés of Spain and Portugal." Mary was not a philosopher, but a humble child of the Church, indoctrinated with its ideas from the first, and confirmed in them by the wrongs which her mother had suffered. She was willing to use mildness so long as there was any chance that it would succeed, but, according to fundamental conception, her one duty was to redeem England from the grasp of the heretics. However great the folly of her marriage with Philip, and however inhuman the principles of the Roman Church, it is unjust to say that she "betook herself to the gloomy satisfaction of religious persecution." After a most unhappy girlhood, during which she showed both dignity and good feeling, she made many sacrifices as Queen for her convictions. The political effects of the reign are one thing. On the other hand, a faithful biographer is bound to observe that Mary was more disinterested than Henry VIII. or Elizabeth. Nor in feeling was she unpatriotic.

Mr. Stone, who looks at English history from the Romanist standpoint, has a hard chapter to write when he reaches "the martyrs"—that is to say, it is difficult for him to preserve, in speaking of Cranmer and the other victims of the persecution, the tone of studied moderation which marks the volume as a whole. It is an easy matter to hold up the weaknesses of Cranmer, with his six or seven recantations in addition to the time-serving which had marked his course in the two preceding reigns. It is easy to ridicule the fervid eloquence of Latimer and the breaking of pews when he preached. It is also easy to disparage Ridley by quoting that old sarcasm: "Latimer leaneth to Cranmer, Cranmer leaneth to Ridley, and Ridley to the singularity of his own wit." But this kind of detraction, when supplemented alone by an apology for Bonner and Gardiner, does not give a correct impression of the whole episode. Something, indeed a good deal, remains to be said about Rowland Taylor, William Hunter, and the intrepidity which was so widely shown. Mr. Stone at this point becomes too openly the advocate, and his chapter is not above criticism even when looked at as a forensic utterance. For example, he challenges the accuracy of Foxe's "Three Hundred Martyrs," placing the number at two hundred. The reasons for the reduction should surely be given in detail, especially since S. R. Maitland, who worked the statistics out case by case, places the total at 277 ('Essays on Subjects Connected with the Reformation in England,' p. 449). Mr. Stone is glad to quote Maitland in extenuation of Bonner; what is his authority for questioning the correctness of Maitland's list?

However, in spite of some signs of party feeling, this book is both useful and meritorious.

Reminiscences of Francis J. Lippitt. Written for his family, his near relatives, and intimate friends. Providence, R. I.: Preston & Rounds Co. 1902. Pp. 122.

This little book has no preface, nor does it seem to need one. It is a frank, outspoken story of a life spent in many places, widely distant from each other, by a man of energy and of no inconsiderable talent—a lawyer, a soldier, something of a statesman, a bit of an author and musician. The pages are interesting from cover to cover. The "Reminiscences" open thus: "I am a descendant of the Puritan, John Lippitt, who, in 1636, was a coadjutor of Roger Williams in establishing the first Government of Rhode Island. I was born in Providence on July 19, 1812"; and end as follows: "I now find myself a senior graduate of Brown University, and also the sole survivor of those persons that stood by Lafayette's grave at his burial; his grandson, the Marquis de Lasteyrie, having died some years since at La Grange."

The writer is happy in describing his childhood. The text reads as though the narrator were talking by the fireside, so simple and direct is the style. His fourteenth year was spent with an uncle, a professor in the Episcopal Seminary at Alexandria, Va. One of the students took the boy to the President's levee on New Year's day. "All I remember about it is that I was introduced to the President—John Quincy Adams—whose hand was very large and icy cold." After graduation, at the age of eighteen, Lippitt visited Washington, and was taken by Mrs. Commodore Stewart, on New Year's day, to the White House to meet President Jackson. "Contrary to my expectation, I found him to be a man of an elegant figure, whose manner was a model of graceful courtesy. I saw this particularly displayed when he stooped down and picked up a little three-year-old girl, introduced to him by her mother, and kissed her." This testimony to Jackson's kindly manner is only cumulative. The youngster heard Clay in a speech that lasted for two days. He was carried away by Clay's eloquence "in spite of his tall ungainly form,

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and a mouth stretching almost from ear to ear." Years afterward, upon reading the speech, he tells us that he "could find little or no trace of those sentences which had seemed to come from a demigod."

Writing without the help of any notes or diary kept at the time, Gen. Lippitt has failed to detect a slip in his memory with regard to Edmund Randolph. "One day," he says (p. 10), "while I stood on the steps of the Capitol, my uncle pointed him out to me. He was a large and portly man, a splendid specimen of a Virginia gentleman of the old school; tall, of a robust frame, looking not to be over fifty, and clad in a blue coat with brass buttons." Of course, this imposing personage could not have been Edmund Randolph, who died in 1813, the year after Lippitt was born. He may have been Peyton Randolph, son of Edmund, and for a long time clerk of the Supreme Court of Virginia; and at that date about forty-seven years of age.

The Secretary of the Navy appointed young Lippitt as schoolmaster, to sail on the *Constellation* for a three years' cruise up the Mediterranean. On his way from Washington by steamer to Norfolk, a friend of his family, Mrs. Thomas, introduced him to her uncle, Chief Justice Marshall. "I had the pleasure of talking with him the whole way down the river. I recognized in him his well-known characteristics—a kindly nature and perfect simplicity of manner." The *Constellation* had over six hundred men. The schoolroom was "a small space between two starboard aft guns on the main deck, shut in by a canvas curtain." Capt. George C. Reed was in command. Lippitt's description of his adventures, touching at Madeira, Lisbon, and Gibraltar, is entertaining. He found it desirable, however, to bring the cruise to a sudden end, and he left the ship in a hurry at Port Mahon. Here the problem was to get to Paris. His funds gave out at Marseilles, and, starting to walk, he actually accomplished a good part of the journey on foot. His chapter af adventures would go far to furnish forth a modern novel. Like other heroes in similar straits, he reached his journey's end, it seems, without having tasted food for twenty-four hours, and with but a single sou in his pocket. He pawned his flute, and resorted to other expedients to keep alive, like a second Oliver Goldsmith. Using letters to friends of his family, he soon got on his feet again, and we find him making a call in grand fashion upon Lafayette at La Grange. The description of a dinner with Lafayette and his daughter and granddaughters is admirable. One finds it difficult to realize that a gentleman is still living with us, hale and hearty, who once sat at table with Lafayette, and was most hospitably entertained by that hero. "I arose as I saw the General coming towards us. He put one arm around my neck, and, with his other arm around the neck of his granddaughter, Mademoiselle de Maubourg, he marched us through the entire length of the salon, where he seated us together in a corner, saying on the way that I must consider myself as his grandson" (p. 29).

A good deal is told of Lippitt's life in Paris, where he spent several years, picking up here and there a bit of work, translating and writing for newspapers, and the like. He helped De Tocqueville in the preparation of his work, 'Democracy in America.' He paid assiduous attention to the theatre and opera; and, comparing at this day Rachel and Bernhardt, he ventures to think the latter superior. Being treated by Mr. Livingston, our Minister, as a sort of semi-official attaché, young Lippitt was invited to return with the Minister and his family in the *Constitution* (Commodore Elliott), which he did. Arriving in New York, he began studying for admission to the bar, and spent seven years in New York city, not at all successful in his profession. Much of this time was devoted to military matters. He was in some capacity connected with the stirring events of the Dorr Rebellion; was a teacher in a collegiate school, at a small salary; and a lawyer on the lookout for clients that seldom came. When war was declared against Mexico, we see him eager to go to the front. He got off at last in a regiment that went around Cape Horn to California, where he landed in '49. From this time on, there is much about the early history of California, in which Lippitt took a prominent part. He was a chairman of the Constitutional Convention, and, some years later, an active member of the Vigilance Committee. At one time he went to Virginia City and opened a law office, but got no clients. At another period we find that he had retired from practice with quite a large fortune, which he went to Europe to enjoy. He was compelled to race back across the Atlantic in order to save his property from the hands of an agent in California, who had betrayed his trust.

During the war for the Union, Lippitt was in active service on the Pacific Coast. He was sent to take care of some Indians who had been misbehaving themselves. At the close of the war he was brevetted brigadier-general. Afterwards, he drifted back to his native city, Providence, and thence came to Washington, where he held office under the Hayes Administration as an assistant counsel in the Court of Claims. He is now living in Washington, active and alert for a man of ninety.

The chief value of this little book consists in the simplicity and frankness with which the writer tells of his varied adventures, keeping nothing back, and talking of himself in a style egotistic, it is true, but never offensively so. He touches upon many matters that are considered beneath the dignity of history, or even of biography, and yet are of acknowledged interest, and of some worth for completing one's view of the recent past. The book has one serious fault—there is no index. A portrait of Gen. Lippitt shows in his face qualities of energy and activity which the attentive reader is likely to discern early in the narrative of these unusual experiences.

Le Théâtre hors de France. 3e série, Le Théâtre en Italie; 4e série, Pulcinella & C. Par Henry Lyonnet. Paris: Société d'Éditions Littéraires et Artistiques. 1901.

That French dramatists and theatrical managers, while remembering that their own productions are superior to all others, can still derive benefit from increased familiarity with the drama of other countries, is the opinion expressed by Gustave Larroumet in his preface to the fourth volume of M. Lyonnet's 'Théâtre hors de France.' Having studied Portugal and Spain, M. Lyonnet devotes his third and fourth volumes to Italy. In pleasing but unpretentious style, and not without some superfluous detail, he presents much interesting and sometimes valuable information on the Italian drama of to-day. Since Italy has no dramatic centre, theatrical companies have no fixed homes, but travel from city to city. Since, moreover, the prices of admission are very modest, the scenery and costumes are usually simple, often shabby. The acting, on the other hand, is of a high order, and yet entirely different in style from any that can be seen outside Italy. When an Italian company came to Paris, French actors and critics said, "This is another art." But, while the players are thoroughly national, the plays are not. Our author occasionally saw a comedy by Goldoni, or some other Italian play; but the immense majority of plays, like so many of the novels now printed in Italy, were translations from the French, English, German, Norwegian, or what not. It is amusing to read his long descriptions of plays once familiar here, like "Niobe" and "My Official Wife." In 1899 the Eleonora Duse and Ermete Zacconi Company undertook to give a season chiefly of D'Annunzio's plays. His "Gloria" failed, and was given but once; his "Gioconda," admired as a literary work, was found lacking dramatically; and for more than half of their performances the company had to fall back on Dumas. M. Lyonnet describes this company's performances, and gives an interesting account of many other actors and actresses only less admired than these, while he also speaks of several plays recently produced by Italian writers.

The fourth volume is entirely devoted to the Neapolitan drama with masks—in particular, to the origin, history, and present condition of Pulcinella. This personage, an incarnation of Neapolitan character, is distinct from the English Punch and the French Polichinelle, although they may owe their origin to him. He has figured in Neapolitan plays since the sixteenth century, always dressed in his loose white blouse and trousers, white pointed cap, and black mask, with hooked nose. At first he was a character in the *commedia dell' arte*, or improvised comedy, in which the playwright provides merely an outline of the action. It is frequently stated that Goldoni overthrew the masked comedy in Italy. What he really did was to put out of fashion the improvisation: he himself used masked characters in many of his plays, and they are met with in popular Italian theatres to the present day, as M. Lyonnet tells us. The masks, Pulcinella for Naples, Arlecchino for Bergamo, Pantalone for Venice, and the rest, spoke their own dialects, wore their own costumes, and preserved their own characteristics, in whatever play they appeared; and so they do still when they appear, while the other actors, travelling all over Italy, speak the national language. Of all the masks, however, Pulcinella seems to be the only one with much vitality, and Naples the only city which has permanent dramatic companies. While accepting the view of Croce and Scherillo that Pulcinella first appeared in his proper person in the theatre of one Silvio Fiorillo, an actor of the sixteenth century, M. Lyonnet also agrees with Maurice Sand in tracing his ancestry back to the ancient Maccus. No direct connection has been demonstrated, but the entire loss

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of a form of amusement so popular among the ancient Italians would surely be more difficult to assume than this line of descent. At any rate, Pulcinella, after a long life at the Teatro San Carlino (an humble neighbor of the great San Carlo), now makes his home at the Teatro Nuovo. He has rivals, imitators, and hosts of admirers.

These books are of value in many ways —most of all as documents for theatrical history, present and past. They will instruct any reader; it is safe to say that few Italians out of Naples know what 'Pulcinella & C.' will tell them. There are about a hundred portraits and other illustrations.

Imperium et Libertas: A Study in History and Politics. By Bernard Holland. Longmans, Green & Co. 1901.

During the last hundred and fifty years, in Mr. Holland's opinion, the most important political question for the English people has been no longer the demarcation of the frontiers between royal power and that of the body of the nation, or even that between the State and individual liberty, but that between imperial power and national liberty. The problem is to maintain dominion over remote regions and subject peoples without overtasking the dominant nation, which, as Augustine said of Rome, may break itself by its own greatness. In 1777 Burke wrote: "I am and ever have been deeply sensible of the difficulty of reconciling the strong presiding power that is so useful towards the conservation of a vast, disconnected, and infinitely diversified empire, with that liberty and safety of the provinces which they must enjoy (in opinion and practice, at least), or they will not be provinces at all." In other words, there must be empire, but it must be maintained with the least possible sacrifice of liberty.

Mr. Holland does not inquire whether empire is, after all, necessary, further than to suggest, in the phrase of Louis Napoleon, "L'empire c'est la paix." If the English colonies were not protected by England, they would be attacked by other Powers, or would quarrel among themselves. At all events, there is no indication that England will withdraw from her present responsibilities, and the inquiry how she can discharge them is timely and important. For this inquiry Mr. Holland prepares a most elaborate foundation. He reviews the American Revolution, showing that the English crown could have retained its sovereignty if it had conceded self-government. He then summarizes the history of Canada, showing that sovereignty was retained because that concession was made. These inquiries are very well conceived, and are conducted in a praiseworthy spirit, but they are really unnecessary. The conclusions have long been sufficiently established.

Much the same may be said of the consideration of the Irish question, which occupies most of the remaining space in the book. Mr. Holland favors applying the Canadian precedent to the case. He proposes to set up legislative assemblies for England, Scotland, Ireland, and perhaps Wales, which bodies should regulate the affairs of the respective provinces; imperial affairs to be directed as now by Parliament. But it is obvious that Canada furnishes no precedent for such a dismemberment of the United Kingdom, nor is it easy to find a comfortable precedent in history. Mr. Holland's solution may some time be adopted, but the prospect is not hopeful. As to the relations between the United Kingdom and the colonies, Mr. Holland makes some rather vague proposals for colonial representation and contribution, accepting the guidance of that distinguished statesman Cecil Rhodes. Cecil Rhodes, however, saw that the first step to be taken in creating the new empire was for England to give up free trade, from which Mr. Holland shrinks. After all his elaborate argumentation, he is at last brought to the rather humiliating conclusion that the colonies cannot be represented in the present Parliament, while a federal Parliament for the whole empire is impossible. Nothing remains but to accept Mr. Chamberlain's plan for a grand imperial council, possessing all the magnificent attributes of a parliament, but without its powers. But no body limited to the function of giving advice has hitherto exercised much influence on the world's affairs. The best that can be said for the plan is, that it may serve to amuse those uneasy souls who are continually fretting themselves over the possibilities of attack by foreign nations, while it will not impede the continuance of the good relations which now exist between England and her colonies.

John Chinaman, and a Few Others. By E. H. Parker. E. P. Dutton & Co.

To find out what kind of a man a Chinaman is, Mr. Parker began in 1867 to study his language and get his ideas. After this, he spent twenty-five years in his country, and then, for comparison, travelled in many lands on four continents. From the first, he acted on the principle that "the lowly are just as interesting company as the mighty." He is a hearty lover of his fellow-man, and a despiser of everything in the shape of a sham. His most healthful way of enjoying reality has enabled this ex-consul, and now professor of Chinese at Manchester and Liverpool, to give us what is perhaps the best picture extant of the actual Chinaman. Having written on family law, history, diplomacy, commerce, and travel in China, besides laying open the truth about the thousand years of Tartar rule, he now introduces us without ceremony to the average man of the queue. Under sixteen chapters, with many pictorial illustrations and a thousand modern instances, this realist brings before us in action every sort and condition of Chinese man. As he has, literally, seen them all, he tells of births, marriages, and deaths, of the Chinese innocents abroad, of kings, popes, premiers, and philosophers, of missionary and other "rows," of piracies and murders, and of ways that are dark and tricks that are vain. In short, he draws from his actual experiences with Chinese of every grade. While revealing with how little wisdom the world is governed, he shows also with how much excellence obscure persons are often endowed. He has, indeed, a vocabulary and literary method of his own, being utterly unconventional, and therefore very charming, for to him belong ability, common sense, and the fine art of being interesting. To those who personally or by near reputation were acquainted with the foreigners mentioned on his pages, Baber, Wade, Parkes, Hennessy, there is delight in reading about these old friends. The Chinese names, whether Teng or Ting, Yeh or Li, become far more distinct, and delightfully human, when we find how heartily their possessors can laugh, respond quickly to a little "chaff," yield gracefully when the game is all up, and are full of that varied nature one touch of which makes the whole world akin. For the Chinaman's religion, his worth and usefulness as a man, and his value in the scale of humanity, Mr. Parker has such hearty appreciation that he does not on a single page sacrifice truth. His book is realistic from cover to cover.

To come very close home, he tells of his student experiences in London with Minister Wu (of Washington, whom he correlates with the famous Howqua family of Canton), when, queueless in London, he was looking forward "to an English rather than to a Chinese career." At the same table with the future barristers of the Middle Temple, sat Mr. Hoshi Toru, later of Washington and Tokio, who responded in Chinese, handsomely, but with taciturnity and the pen, to the challenge as to his scholarship in the classics. The young Japanese then, perhaps, little supposed that, a quarter of a century later, in the plenitude of power and fame, he should be assassinated by a conservative fellow-countryman, reader of the books of Mencius, which justify the assassination of unpopular ministers. The London incident (evidently written by Mr. Parker before the late Cabinet Minister was slain) is in a context which shows that, in all probability, a European student could receive a Chinese degree if he went through the usual curriculum. Even aborigines from among the hill tribes, who yield a measure of conformity, can receive degrees and offices.

A curious literary illustration of "the principle of *tabu*, which has always had a wide extension in China," is stated on page 211. The mysterious combination which, in the ancient odes, means "how the Dolichos [plant] creeps," is always avoided by scholars who know foreigners, because the words *Kot tam yu* have sounds very similar to what so often proceeds from British mouths, being heard even in the consulate. Indeed, "Kot tam" is believed to be the name of an English deity, "whose wrath is called down upon the heads of luckless Chinamen on the slightest provocation." This is a curious reminder of the "god-damn hommes" of fifteenth-century France, and the dammurize-hito of the Yokohama dialect. Chinese swearing is retrospective. It has a twist towards genealogy, as becomes the age of the nation, for the objurgation smites ancestors even to the eighteenth degree.

It would be hard, in Mr. Parker's wonderful scrap-book of examples, to tell what phase of Chinese human nature he has not illustrated—from the trusted Chinese physician for whom American and English ladies and children would loosen their dress, and who was deeply mourned when he died, to ordinary "boys" or servant men whose virtues and failings are alike pronounced. The author also met many Koreans during his stay as Consul in their country. Of Japanese doctors, he says that they are patient and do not guess at ailments, but always try to get to the bot-

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tom of everything. He tells also of peninsular Asiatics of various sorts, and of Mongols and Tartars. We consider this book equal in sociological value to about one thousand of the average missionary reports, and, just because of its realism—whether we call it coarse or clever—rich in cheer to those who, piercing the crusts of fashion and tradition, see in the Chinaman a genuine human being. Appropriately has the Chinese character, *fuku*, been stamped on the back of the book indicative of the sunny cheer within. There is an index and a valuable glossary.

Washington the Capital City, and its Part in the History of the Nation. By Rufus Rockwell Wilson. Two vols., illustrated. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1902.

The national capital has had its full share of attention from writers of books and magazine articles. The rude beginning, the magnificence of the plan and the slow response to its demands, and then the sudden awakening into new life after the war for the Union had brought Northern ideas of progress into play at Washington—all these combined have furnished a theme for a large force of busy writers. We take up a new book upon this topic with some misgivings. It is something, however, to tell the story anew and tell it well. This feat Mr. Wilson has accomplished. He is an entertaining writer, the master of a pleasing style, and an author who shows that he has a good sense of proportion. The volumes are printed in attractive page form, and the reader who opens one is likely to find himself so well satisfied as to journey through the entire book.

Washington is truly described as having been in 1799 "a straggling settlement." The close of 1900 found it a city in reality, unsurpassed for its broad avenues, handsome streets, and delightful parks. The genius of L'Enfant at last stands revealed to even the dullest onlooker. One may not say that Washington is the United States, in the sense that Paris is France; but there are few American citizens who are indifferent to a knowledge of their capital, while many regard it in their affections as second only to their own place of residence. The people take a pride in the capital, and view with favor every reasonable plan for its improvement and adornment. The great work now fairly begun under the charge of the Park Commission is but one mode of expressing this deep-seated desire. There is no danger, therefore, that a well-written book about Washington will lack for readers. The only requisite is that the workman, in handling old material, shall show ingenuity and deftness.

Somebody said once of a gentleman who, with no love of reading, had enjoyed the advantage of extensive travel both in his own country and abroad, that he possessed a mind "nourished upon guide-books." The present work is not constructed on the guide-book plan, although from its opening pages one might anticipate that such were the fact. It is rather a narrative of the doings of public officials than a description of localities with which they have been identified. Mr. Wilson's pages present a rapid survey of men of distinction who have acted their part at Washington from the days of President John Adams down to the close of Grant's second term. The book is not exactly a history in disguise. It is a collection of light touches, anecdotes, and brief comments, all readable because of the writer's animated style. At times one is reminded of Blaine's 'Twenty Years,' save that Mr. Wilson has so many personages to deal with that he is enabled only in a few instances to bring out the character into full light. It is surprising how apt the author shows himself to be in his use of adjectives. Every member of the Cabinet, almost every Senator, together with all the more prominent Representatives, are mentioned. Usually, what is known as a thumb-nail sketch is presented. Where only a word or two is allotted to a person, Mr. Wilson displays no little art in the selection of the proper word. The Presidents in turn, as might be expected, come in for extended notice. Much space is devoted to Andrew Jackson; while the reader will encounter some facts in regard to Mr. Lincoln of which he has probably never heard before. The tone of moderation which pervades the book is its best feature. The volumes are to be commended to one who desires to take a brief survey of our political history, without caring to go deeper and learn something of the philosophy of it. Not designed to be studied, they are well calculated for the passing of a pleasant hour.

A work of this description can scarcely avoid the reproach of omissions. Nothing, for example, is said of Hamilton Fish, whose services to his country deserve at least as much praise as that accorded to more than one statesman of an earlier date. Moreover, the older residents of Washington, no less than those who are familiar with local traditions, will miss such characters as Beau Hickman, or that leader in the "third House" and prince of entertainers, Sam Ward. Errors, too, are to be expected when so large a field is covered. One of the earliest, which is most likely to arrest attention, is that of putting Chief Justice Parsons of Massachusetts in the Cabinet of John Adams as his Attorney-General (i., p. 47). But there is a much more serious instance. There are those yet living who can recall how bitter was the disappointment of the Whigs at the result of the election of 1844. They came near electing their idol, Henry Clay. The change of a few votes in New York and Michigan would have carried Clay into the Presidency. Out of this disappointment sprang the usual crop of post-election stories, explanations, and criminations. A charge that seems to have enjoyed more vitality than almost any other, was levelled against James G. Birney, the candidate of the Liberal party. We quote from Mr. Wilson's first volume (p. 404):

"Clay, in some way, had given serious offence to James G. Birney. The exact cause of this hostility had never been revealed, nor did Clay himself, so he asserted, ever understand it. Birney, however, made no secret of it. He was an active abolitionist, and there was, as had been shown in the preceding campaign, some trifling strength in the so-called Abolition party in the North. Its members met in convention and nominated Birney for President, as they had done in 1840. Birney did not want to run again, but saw in his candidacy a chance to repay Clay for the slight, or whatever it was, which had caused the personal enmity. He therefore ran, and had such revenge as caused the Whig party to lose the Presidency."

Had the writer of these words taken a little more pains to get at the truth, he would have discovered that the story, ridiculous as it is on its face, is nothing more nor less than pure fabrication. Carl Schurz, in his not unfriendly biography of Clay, disposes of a similar aspersion in short order. Of Mr. Birney he remarks: "He has been charged with committing an act of personal faithlessness in opposing Clay in 1844. The charge was utterly unjust."

Insect Life: Souvenirs of a Naturalist, J. H. Fabre. Translated from the French by the Author of 'Mademoiselle Mori.' With illustrations by M. Prendergast Parker. Macmillan Co. 1901. Pp. 320, 16 plate figures.

This is an altogether delightful book, in which the author gives, in a few chapters, the results of observations extending over many years. Not many insects are mentioned, and all are from southern France, where, as incidentally appears, the author found it a difficult task, early in his career as a teacher, to secure recognition for natural science of any kind. Two chapters are devoted to the "sacred beetle," in which, incidentally, we get much information concerning the habits of dung beetles, or "tumble-bugs," in general. We also learn that the pellets they are so commonly seen rolling on country roads are not intended as the homes of the early stages, as was usually supposed, but as food supplies for the beetles themselves. The remainder of the book is devoted to the habits of certain predatory digging wasps and mason bees. Elaborate accounts are given of the manner in which the cells, burrows, and other structures are built, and of the way in which the prey is captured and prepared to serve as food for the larva—all based on original, long-continued, personal observations.

The author's style and attitude toward his subjects are excellently shown in the following extract:

"Beauteous Sphegidæ, hatched under my eyes and brought up by my hand; . . . you whose transformations I have followed step by step, waking up with a start at night for fear of missing the moment when the nymph breaks through her swaddling-bands and the wings issue from their cases; you have taught me so many things, learning nothing yourselves, knowing without teachers all that you need to know. Oh, my beautiful Sphegidæ! fly away without fear of my tubes, my phials, and all my boxes and cages, and all my prisons for you. . . . Depart in peace, hollow out your burrows, stab your crickets scientifically, and continue your race, so as to afford to others what you have afforded to me—some of the few moments of happiness in my life."

Though absolutely accurate in detail and even prolix, the author is neither tiresome nor technical; indeed, the systematist comes in for a number of digs: "An insect is caught, transfixed with a long pin, fastened in a box with a cork bottom; a ticket with a Latin name is put under its feet, and all is said. This way of looking at entomological history does not satisfy me." And so he makes a plea for "real observation, and not to let entomology consist in rows of impaled insects." Though he has the most intense interest in all their habits, our author does not unreservedly admire all the doings of his pets. After describing how Philanthus captures and

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crushes honey bees to get at the gathered sweets, he adds:

"This profanation of a dying creature, squeezed by its murderer to empty its body and enjoy the contents, has something so hideous that I should call it a crime if a Philanthus could be held responsible. In the midst of this horrible banquet, I have seen both murderer and prey seized by the Mantis; the robber was plundered by a second robber. Horrible to relate, while the Mantis held it transpierced by the points of the double saw, and was already gnawing the under parts, the Philanthus went on licking the honey, unable to abandon the delicious food even in the throes of death. Let us cast a veil over these horrors."

The author has no sympathy for those who see evidences of intelligent action in anything done by the insects under observation. He sees in it nothing but an instinct—wonderful, indeed, and in many points beyond our comprehension; nevertheless, an instinct only, which impels the doing of certain acts as a necessary consequence to definite stimulation. It is an impulse that is obeyed without question, in definite order, and without regard to conditions. To prove this point, we have an interesting series of experiments, which certainly do show that it is easy to disconcert an insect, and to get beyond the boundaries of its inherited experience. Whether the experiments have been sufficient or entirely fair in the problems presented is perhaps a question.

All the facts contained in the book could be sufficiently stated in 30 pages; that in spreading them over 300 the author has not become wearisome is due to the literary quality of the work and to the generally interesting character of the excursions and discussions. It is rare to have so true a tale so well told, for the occasionally extravagant style is not allowed to interfere with accuracy.

The illustrations are half-tones, from wash-drawings, and, as a whole, are good. But the artist has not seen the specimens as the author has; and some of them look unnatural. It is also a question whether the attempt to unite landscape with full-sized insects in the foreground has been entirely successful. The bookmaker's work has been well done; the print is bold and easily read.

Practical Talks by an Astronomer. By Harold Jacoby. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

There is little occasion for aught but praise of Prof. Jacoby's 'Talks,' which are not designed as a systematic treatise on astronomy, but are concerned with subjects that admit of detached treatment and are withal of wide general interest. They are presented in a not unpleasing style, in language in large part free from technicalities, and all have, in fact, been printed in periodicals before. But this collection of disconnected essays is well worth the more permanent form, and why should we not be able to purchase light scientific books of this character at the news-stands and on the trains as well as 'The Crisis,' 'David Harum,' and 'Two Bad Brown Eyes'?

Professor Jacoby begins with 'Navigation at Sea,' and he relates a story of the old days, how,

"upon a certain voyage from England to Rio, the old captain could remember the following odd method of navigation: The ship was steered by compass to the southward and westward, more or less, until the skipper's antique quadrant showed that they had about reached the latitude of Rio. Then they swung her on a course due west by compass, and away she went for Rio, relying on the lookout man forward to keep the ship from running ashore. For, after a certain lapse of time, being ignorant of the longitude, they could not know whether they would 'raise' the land within an hour or in six weeks."

Not a little curious is it that Professor Jacoby, with his intimate knowledge of astronomy, should seem to perpetuate the too widely prevalent error that the captain of a vessel is able to determine the error of his chronometer—in other words, to get his time and longitude—merely by watching at noon "until he discovers that the sun is just beginning to descend." We wonder whether Professor Jacoby knew any ship captain who relied upon a chronometer error found in this quite impossible and most inaccurate fashion. In point of fact, the method would be about as available for the captain of an Atlantic liner who desired to make the port of New York, as was the ancient skipper's manner of chancing it for Rio. And the "lookout man forward" would even more be in need of keeping both his eyes peeled.

Professor Jacoby's choice of subjects is quite happy, giving his book an up-to-date appearance that ought to enhance its present appreciation. The polestar and Campbell's discovery of its ternary character, the new star in Perseus, the little planet Eros so recently approaching close to the earth, the wanderings of the terrestrial poles, the late Professor Keeler's demonstration of the meteoritic constitution of Saturn's rings—these are a few of the more attractive and timely titles. The story of the Moon Hoax, too, is well told, and perhaps the era never will dawn when that would be untimely.

Galileo, ever a fresh and picturesque character, is selected for one of the essays, and a few witty paragraphs are quoted from his 'Dialogue on the Systems,' citing the contemporary English translation of Salisbury, printed in London by Leybourne in 1661. Two of the three *dialogi personæ*, it will be remembered, are Salviati, advocate of the Copernican system, and the humorous and neutral Sagredus, finally convinced of the Ptolemaic error.

"Salviati refers to the argument, then well known, that the earth cannot rotate on its axis, 'because of the impossibility of its moving long without wearinesse.' Sagredus replies: 'There are some kinds of animals which refresh themselves after wearinesse by rowling on the earth; and that therefore there is no need to fear that the Terrestrial Globe should tire, nay, it may be reasonably affirmed that it enjoyeth a perpetual and most tranquil repose, keeping itself in an eternal rowling.' Salviati's comment on this sally is, 'You are tart and satyrical, Sagredus.'"

The epoch-making research of the late Lewis Rutherfurd in astronomical photography, in which Professor Jacoby has himself been actively engaged, is brought to the front with well-deserved prominence; and equally the significant work of Sir David Gill, his Majesty's astronomer at the Cape, who, twenty years ago, laid firmly the foundations of sidereal photography by turning towards the starlit heavens a simple portrait camera belonging to a local photographer. To be sure, a comet was all he sought to catch, but the myriad stars that also flecked his plate pointed directly to charting the whole heavens by photography, and became the immediate forerunner of all the astrographic congresses that have met in Paris during the past fifteen years.

Professor Jacoby's 'Practical Talks,' while in no sense a contribution to science, nor so intended, is yet a distinct aid to better popular understanding and appreciation of things astronomical, and hence is sure to perform a service worth the while. The publishers have put it in an attractive dress, so far as types and paper are concerned, the few full-page illustrations are excellent, a copious index is helpful; but instead of belittling by a cover-design of a nebulous whorl or doubtful "what is it?" the book merits rather the simple dignity of an undecorated cover.

The Roentgen Rays in Medicine and Surgery, as an Aid in Diagnosis and as a Therapeutic Agent. By Francis H. Williams, M.D. Macmillan. 1901. 8vo, pp. xxx, 658. Illustrated.

The employment in surgical diagnosis of the remarkable qualities belonging to the radiation from electrical discharges in a vacuum tube began immediately upon the publication in 1895 of Professor Roentgen's discovery, and the literature of the subject is already very voluminous. As is well known, the radiograph represents the shadow of an object opaque to these rays, and it was soon found that there was no sharp demarcation between the permeable and the impermeable. As nearly as made out, the law of absorption of the Roentgen ray is substantially this: (1.) Rays are absorbed by different substances of equal thickness in a degree nearly proportional to their specific gravities or densities. (2.) The same substance in different thicknesses absorbs with a percentage increasing with the thickness, but not proportional to it. (3.) The more opaque the object is to the ray, the more rapidly does the influence of the thickness increase. It follows that, other conditions being equal, the shadows of different tissues vary with their chemical composition, and therefore the respective normal organs have individual distinctness, and also that changes, permanent or temporary, are demonstrable. Such observations are a useful check upon those made in the more common way, and sometimes are themselves more valuable. That is to say, medical as well as surgical diagnosis is under deep obligations to the X-ray.

But, unexpectedly, therapeutics also has become its debtor. Superfluous hair has been removed for cosmetic reasons; birthmarks have been diminished or cleared away; various skin affections, chiefly serious and intractable, have certainly been cured; and, more remarkable, superficial malignant disease has been healed. Affections which are deeper-seated have not yielded to its touch; and whether the various forms of external cancer and its allies will remain healed can be determined only after the lapse of considerable time. At the worst, however, the treatment may be renewed. In surgery the radiograph has a well-established place for the elucidation of obscure conditions. The grave original objection that, as the photograph after all

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only represented a shadow, a great deal of accidental misrepresentation might occur from the relation of the plate to the object, is done away by taking stereoscopic views. This is particularly required where joints are involved.

Where the field is so new and such unanticipated observations have followed experiment, it is natural that the influence of this radiance should be tried upon pathogenic bacteria. Different observers have attained somewhat contradictory results, but at present the general determination is negative. At most, as thus far observed, the growth of cultures outside the body may be checked, but developed colonies are not materially affected. In physiology proper, in the examination of foods and drugs for adulterants, and in veterinary medicine, the Roentgen rays have a growing value.

The volume before us explains at length the matters we have summarized. It contains nearly four hundred illustrations, all apposite; and, although sometimes unduly prolix, it fairly represents our present knowledge in this direction. The author has had exceptional facilities for mastering the apparatus and for observation upon patients, and of both he has taken full and intelligent advantage. More than one hundred pages are devoted to the equipment and its use. The only weak point we have observed is the inference that the static machine may be made sufficiently large and kept sufficiently dry always to work, as found in this sentence (p. 14): "During damp weather the leakage of electricity from the static machine is greater, and a smaller amount is generated, than in dry weather; therefore, the machine must be large enough to give out a sufficient amount of electricity even when the air is moist." This implies possibilities that do not always exist. In the tropics the atmosphere near the sea level is so charged with moisture as to make any static machine of practicable size unreliable. These objections do not have force against an inductive apparatus. Throughout the volume it is insisted that the interpretation of the observations requires special training, much as the meanings of chemical reactions require expert explanation. This does not lessen, perhaps it increases, the real value of the method.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Armstrong, Le Roy. The Outlaws. D. Appleton & Co. $1.25.
Austin, Alfred. A Tale of True Love, and Other Poems. Harpers. $1.20.
Baldwin, James. The Book Lover: A Guide to the Best Reading. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Barnard, F. P. Companion to English History. (Middle Ages.) Henry Frowde. $2.90.
Bourne, G. C. An Introduction to the Study of the Comparative Anatomy of Animals, Vol. II. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Boyle, Courtenay. Mary Boyle: Her Book. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.
Brandes, George. Main Currents in Nineteenth Century Literature, Vol. II.; The Romantic School in Germany. Macmillan. $2.75.
Brewer, D. J. American Citizenship. (Yale Lectures.) Scribners. 75 cents.
Brown, P. H. History of Scotland. Vol. II. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Brown, W. L. Helpful Thoughts from the Meditations of Marcus Aurelius Antoninus. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Brown, W. G. Stephen Arnold Douglas. (Riverside Biographical Series.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 65 cents.
Brown, Abbie F. In the Days of Giants. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.10.
Burge, Marie L. Sylva, and Other Poems. Edwin S. Gorham.
Butler, C. H. The Treaty-Making Power of the United States, Vols. I. and II. The Banks Law Pub. Co.
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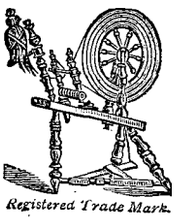

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